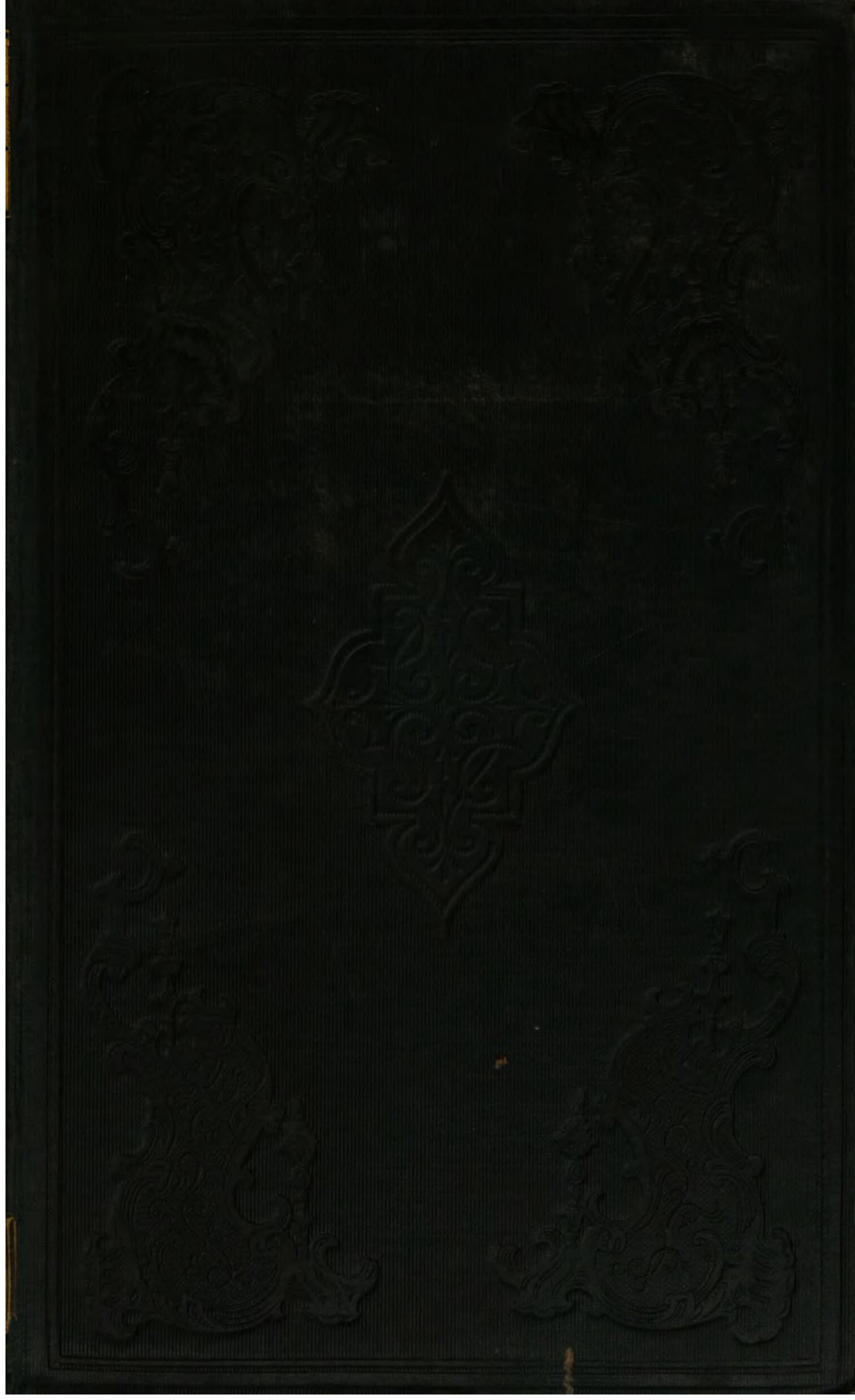




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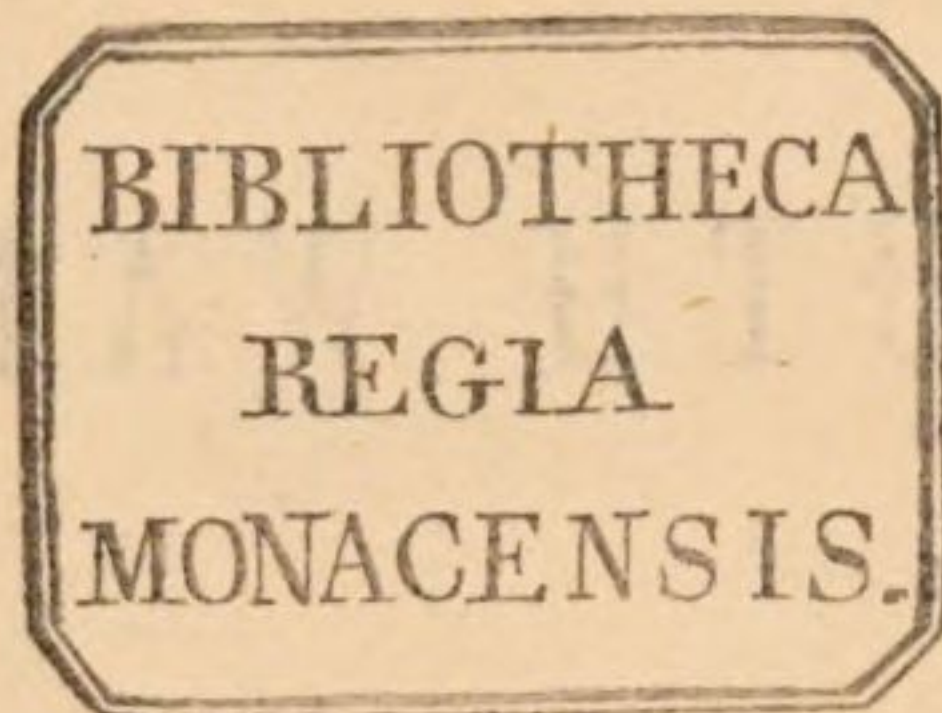
J.C.

A SKETCH
OF
NEW SOUTH WALES.

BY
J. O. BALFOUR, Esq.

FOR SIX YEARS A SETTLER IN THE BATHURST DISTRICT.

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PREFACE.

THE following pages were written for the purpose of occasionally relieving the tedium of a long sea voyage; but the great interest which at present exists in all matters relative to our Colonial possessions in the South Pacific, has induced me to publish a narrative which, I am aware, has little other recommendation than the accuracy of the facts stated.

In executing a task which is altogether foreign to my previous habits, I have studiously avoided the introduction of all personalities; I have ventured on no matter that can be individually offensive, and, at the same time, I have advanced no statement on which there exists a shadow of a doubt.

J. O. BALFOUR.

London, August, 1845.

ERRATA.

- Page 34, line 5 from bottom, *for by read in.*
41, — 7 from bottom, *for mines read hills.*
43, last line, *for droughts read drought.*
82, line 11 from bottom, *for cheap read sheep.*
107, — 8 from bottom, *for Macquaire read Macquarie.*
110, — 12, *for by read from.*
111, — 4 from bottom, *for three read the.*
114, last line, *insert former before colonial.*
120, line 4, *for colony read colonists.*
120, — 5, *for their read the.*

A SKETCH OF NEW SOUTH WALES.

CHAPTER I.

Situations—Seasons—Brickfielders—Diseases—Aborigines—Gins—
Corradgee—Corroborry—Native Fight—Bogan Tribe—Sheep
and Cattle Stealing.

FEW of our colonial possessions have of late years held out brighter prospects to persons intending to emigrate than New South Wales, and notwithstanding its immense distance of nearly 16,000 miles, enterprising capitalists and labourers have preferred it to the nearer colonies of Canada and the Cape of Good Hope. The island of New Holland, in which New South Wales is situated, extends nearly 1800 miles from north to south, and upwards of 2000 miles from east to west. Its northernmost point is not much more than 500 miles from the equator; while the southernmost, which is in thirty-eight degrees south latitude, enjoys the climate of the temperate zone. The longitudinal points of the island are from 112 to 153 degrees of east longitude. It has been remarked by travellers that, although the southern point of New Holland corresponds in latitude with that of Lisbon in the northern hemisphere, the climate more generally resembles that of Bordeaux, and other

places which are in forty-four degrees north latitude. This peculiarity can be attributed only to the vast surface of the Pacific Ocean, as compared with that of the land in the southern hemisphere. When it is day in England it is night in New South Wales; the seasons also are the converse of those in the northern hemisphere.

The Spaniards at the commencement of the seventeenth century were the discoverers of New Holland; and from them it received the name of Australia. It subsequently, however, obtained its present name of New Holland from the Dutch navigators, who visited it a few years afterwards. The celebrated Cook, who was the first explorer of the eastern coast of the island, in the year 1776, gave such a flattering account of the new land, that the British Government were induced to rank it among the English colonies.

The southern part of the island of New Holland has been divided into three principal parts, discovered at different periods,—viz., South Australia in the centre; Swan River Settlement on the western coast; and New South Wales, or Eastern Australia, on the east coast. The colony of South Australia has its principal town, Adelaide, in thirty-five degrees south latitude, and 140 degrees west longitude. This colony has been fast acquiring a name among the Australian colonies, and will, in all probability, become a very important field for emigration. The Swan River Settlement has not risen into much importance. Like South Australia, it has a government of its own. The

prominent features of these colonies are similar to those of New South Wales. The last-named colony, which is the oldest and most considerable of the Australian settlements, lies on the east coast of New Holland, extending from Moreton Bay on the north, to Port Phillip on the south,—a distance of upwards of 1000 miles. The coast line abounds with capacious and beautiful harbours, communicating with lands, more or less adapted for pasture and agricultural purposes.

The winter months in New South Wales are May, June, and July; and its hottest months, November, December, and January. The climate is variable,—and notwithstanding the many tales that have been told of its beautiful sky, the frequent and refreshing showers, and the genial warmth of the temperature, the truth is, that, although the days are often delightful, and light and penetrating showers, promoting rapid vegetation, often fall, tropical rains sweeping all before them are not uncommon, and hot winds rushing through a highly heated atmosphere, throw a blight upon what was yesterday green and flourishing. In January, 1840, the thermometer in a well shaded room facing the south stood as high as 120 degrees; while, for some days previous, the average range had been about 105 degrees. As a proof that tropical rains are known in Australia, there fell in October, 1844, nineteen inches of rain within forty-eight hours; and during the torrent, two and a half inches fell within two hours. It is but justice, however, to state that the Australian rains are not often

of this description; and colonists of many years standing declared that there were not more than one or two instances of similar torrents in their time, and this statement would appear to be borne out by the fact, that rivers which had not been running streams for years, had their banks overflowed to such a height that huts two miles distant were washed away.

The winter is more a season of rain than of frost. Snow even seldom falls in Sydney and the warmer parts of the colony, and when it does, the rays of the rising sun soon disperse all traces of it. In Bathurst, however, which is more than 3000 feet above the level of the sea, and in other similarly situated parts, snow-storms often occur, and ice, an inch in thickness, may sometimes be found during the winter months. The greatest peculiarity in the climate is what is called by colonists a *brickfielder*. This wind has all the characteristics of a sirocco in miniature: its effects are not, it is true, so fearful as those of the much dreaded wind of the desert, which we are told buried the monuments, temples, and great cities of Egypt in remote times, and has suffocated caravans of men and camels in times less distant; nevertheless, the Australian sirocco is bad enough; it generally lasts for a day,—coming in intermitting gusts. The careful shopkeeper on such occasions, puts up his window-shutters, and locks his door; similar precautions are adopted in dwelling-houses, and business loses for the time its wonted bustle. During the gusts, which seldom last more than ten or fifteen minutes, the sun is obscured, and

the atmosphere is an actual cloud of dust. He whose business requires him to go out during this visitation, is pretty sure to come in for either the beginning or the fag end of a gust; when in the course of a few minutes he finds, notwithstanding his precautions, that the fine particles of sand have filled his eyes, and penetrated even through his clothes. Returning home, he discovers that the house is full of sand; that the brickfielder has even insinuated itself between the leaves of his books; that at dinner he will probably find that his favourite dish has been spoiled by the brickfielder. Nor is this all; for on retiring to rest he will find that the brickfielder has intruded even within the precincts of his musquitto curtains.

The inhabitants of New South Wales are not subject to many diseases; those of most frequent occurrence in the colony are ophthalmia, dysentery, and rheumatism. The first I do not suppose is the ophthalmia of Egypt; it is called by the colonists "blight," and is most prevalent during the hot winds. I have remarked that the martyrs to this disease were, for the most part, persons who apparently were of uncleanly habits, although I doubt not that it frequently attacks others. Whether the "blight" is an epidemic complaint or not, I am unable to determine. The common opinion is that it is caused by the venomous sting of a small sand-fly blown by the hot wind into the eye. Dysentery, I think, prevails chiefly among the lowest class, although it often, in a modified shape, attacks, like the mus-

quitto, the newly-arrived emigrant. Mercury, in large quantities, is resorted to as the great antidote, and, I believe, with much success. Intemperance is, I suspect, the chief cause of this disease, although drinking cold water in warm weather, exposure to the sun, and partaking too freely of the Australian fruits, are also exciting causes. Rheumatism, in the interior, affects more or less almost all who, from their bush pursuits, are often obliged to sleep in the open air; and there are few men who lead this life that are not dressed from top to toe in flannel, even in the hottest day of summer. I have, however, seen but few rheumatic cripples among the many whom I found suffering from the complaint.

There have been many cases of influenza in the country; but I never heard of their proving fatal to any but the more weakly. Although many persons afflicted with consumption have been cured in New South Wales, the colonial youths have nearly all a most consumptive appearance, their persons being generally very thin, while their features, often handsome, have for the most part an unhealthy look.

There are few places where an excess in the use of spirits does not conduce to disease and death, but in warm climates it is especially calculated to undermine the constitution, and injure the moral energies; and I regret to say, there are many diseases in New South Wales which owe their origin to intemperance alone, and these of course cannot be classed among the diseases of the climate. I have

seen one case of *coup de soleil*. The man afflicted was a servant of my own, and was of very temperate habits: he was a large and strong man, but very corpulent. The day of his seizure was one of the hottest I ever experienced.

It was not until a few weeks after I arrived in the colony, that I saw any of the aborigines. They frequent the locations of white men during the winter months only, being engaged, in the hot season, in migratory expeditions for the purposes of hunting, fishing, and redressing grievances received from neighbouring tribes. A journey which I took, however, soon after my arrival, from Sydney, to the lower part of the Macquarie River (a distance of about 350 miles), brought me among the sable tribe of the Macquarie; and I shall never forget the disgust with which I first saw these savages, in all the majesty of nature, without the slightest covering. Some were standing, others lying at full length, while others again were squatted on their haunches in a peculiar and most ungraceful fashion. They numbered about fifty, and had just returned from a war with the Bogan tribe; their bodies were covered with many curious and diversified sorts of lacerations; their abdomens, shoulders, and legs were painted crimson. Their unearthly shouting—their features, which were most repulsive—the low, or I might almost say the *no* forehead of most of them—the shaggy eyebrows protruding over and almost hiding the small keen eyes—the flabby nose, unnaturally distended by a long white bone inserted

through the nostrils—the thick lips and the snow-like teeth, common to cannibals — all inspired me with a dislike for them, that time and almost daily intercourse with them have not removed. The men are generally hideous in their aspect, yet I have seen some that might be almost called good-looking; these have a Jewish cast of countenance, with dark and piercing eyes. Their heads, however, all much larger behind than in front, are certainly not such as a phrenologist would admire. The men are seldom above the middle size, their skins are of a bronze colour, the hair is not curled like the African, but straight, long, and abundant; their breasts and backs are thickly scarified; they have not much stamina in them, and the muscles, which stand out in bold relief on the legs and arms of the New Zealander, are not visible on the Australian savage. The male blacks wander about in the hot season literally naked, with the exception of a small band, made from the fibres of a tree, worn upon the head, as a snood is, or was, by women in Scotland; this band, painted white with pipe clay, is the only mourning the men wear. Occasionally you meet one who wears a small band round his loins during the winter months. However, the more provident, but these are few, wear a small opossum cloak. The females are small and slender, and sometimes become wives at the age of ten or eleven, and you may see a *gin* (the aboriginal for a married woman), almost without knowing, at the first glance, whether she belongs to the mammalia order or not. The gins

for the most part go about quite naked, with their limbs well rouged with red ochre, which they think much improves their charms. They have generally a small cloak, made of opossum skins sewn together; it is, however, never used except in cold weather. A net made from the wild flax thrown over their neck, and containing their children, their nets, their calabash, and the stone tomahawks of their lords, completes the wardrobe of these bronze-coloured ladies.

The Australian blacks, both male and female, are most expert swimmers, and children of three years of age may be seen swimming and turning in the water with a velocity that no European could equal; the men often remain for a length of time under the water, spearing, or catching with their hands, the river fish. They have, however, a great aversion to the water in cold weather; and it is only during the hot season that they ever wash themselves; for the rest of the year their outward man is never even touched with water, and the safe plan, and that which the bushman generally adopts, is to keep to the weather side of them, even though on horseback. Should necessity compel them in winter to cross a river through which a child might wade, a piece of bark, stripped from an adjoining gum-tree, turned up at both ends, serves them for a canoe—so great is their aversion to cold water.

They have no regard for personal comforts, if they are to be acquired by any trouble of their own.

Witness their total want of shelter during the winter months, when a hut of however rude a construction would afford them a refuge from the inclemencies of the season. Their only habitation, at least the only one I have seen used, is formed by two sheets of bark stripped from the nearest tree, at the first appearance of a storm, and joined together at an angle of forty-five degrees. This, which they call a *gunnya*, is cut up for firewood when the storm has passed.

The males are expert in hunting the kangaroo; and as their dogs are almost useless, they are obliged to use much stratagem in securing their prey; they often, by means of tracking, and the aid of their remarkably keen sight, manage to keep to the leeward of the kangaroo for a distance of ten miles. When they get within a few hundred yards of one, they distort their bodies into all kinds of shapes, sometimes representing burnt stumps of trees, at other times lying like logs of black wood on the ground, and if fortunate enough by such means to get within range of their prey, their unerring spear accomplishes the rest. The emu is hunted much in the same way. The seniors of the tribes consider this bird as their peculiar property, and say that the hairs must be white of him who partakes of it. Fish in summer forms the chief article of food for the tribes who live on the banks of the larger rivers. Their mode of fishing is very wholesale, more particularly in still waters, where they poison the fish by means of a sheet of bark stripped from the Myall tree (*Acacia pendula*). In less than

half an hour after the Myall bark is thrown into the pond, the surface of the water is covered with fish apparently dead, when the gins, who are always in attendance for that purpose, leap into the water and throw the fish in scores on the banks: after a very faint imitation of cooking, the fish are devoured half raw by these children of nature. Another, and by far the more sportsmanlike and civilized method they have of fishing, is as follows: one of their seniors stands alone in his bark canoe, in the centre of a stream, while a detachment of a dozen young men go up the river about 500 yards above the canoe, and the same number proceed down the river for a few hundred yards, when, at the signal or cooye of the old warrior, both parties throw themselves into the water and return towards him, swimming, diving, and spearing, and throwing the fish on the banks as they go along; the lion's share of the sport, however, belongs to the old warrior, who spears the largest fish as they swim by him in their endeavour to escape their ruthless pursuers. There are frequently hundreds of fish caught in this manner, in the course of a few hours; many of them weigh as much as twenty pounds.

Mussel fishing, or rather digging, is performed by the gins, who by constant practice can use their toes and feet for the purposes of digging, and with no other assistance, they with great rapidity excavate, to the depth of five or six inches, the hard clay under which, in the hot seasons, are found abundance of mussels and other shell-fish.

But the most ingenious accomplishment of the blacks, and by far the most interesting to the colonist, is their skill in bee-hunting. A party of ten or twelve of them having caught an Australian bee, an insect not much larger than our common fly, attach to its body, with a gum that exudes from the mimosa tree, a little light white down, taken from the eagle or ibis. This is done as much for the purpose of causing the bee to fly slowly, as to make the object as large and white as possible; they then with a simultaneous shout start off, running to and fro, following the movements of the bee for more than a mile, until the insect lights on its hive, in the hollow branch of a gum tree. In this manner the blacks collect abundance of honey, and the Australian honey greatly excels our finest heath honey.

When the boys attain the age of fourteen years, a ceremony, which has excited much reprehension among some of the philanthropic colonists, takes place. The nature of this ceremony no European has yet been able to discover, and the gins even are in total ignorance of its mysteries. Thrice I have had the good fortune to see these truculent savages start upon their mystic journey, and on each occasion their numbers were about forty. The seniors and warriors walked two abreast, each holding in his right hand a green bough, and the boys that were to be boys no longer, marched tremblingly in the rear; but where they went, or what was done, I know no more than others. They were absent two

or three days, and upon their return I noticed that the boys who went out to be made young men were each minus a front tooth. They seemed much elated, and studiously abstained from going near the gins, whom they would even make a wide circuit to avoid. I was told by some of the seniors, that those who had been made young men, might now eat of the kangaroo, and would have a chance in the first fight of becoming renowned warriors; but that until their nulla nulla and spear could procure for them a fair captive, they were under something equivalent to an oath, never to approach the gins of either their own or any friendly tribe.

Among these people, polygamy has no limits; the young warrior has generally two gins, one of whom is old enough to be his mother, and has the immediate charge of the *menage*, the other is young, and the mother of his children. The old and superannuated warrior, grown, I suppose, grey in the service of Mars, rejoices in not less than seven or eight black Venuses, of all ages and sizes. On the abduction of a female, the gay Lothario, whoever he may be, has to tilt it with all her kith and kin, and, strange as it may appear, the victor, if even he is her brother, carries off the captive of his spear to make nets, dig mussels for him, and become the mother of his children. To a white, the black husband is very accommodating, offering to every passing white man the choice of his harem. I never could discover that these swarthy lords had the slightest affection for their wives or children, their

value for their gins appearing to be regulated by the quantity of grubs, mussels, and roots that they could collect. I do not think that they have any creed, although they seem to have a dread of the "Mannai," or as, since their communication with the whites, they term it the Devil, or evil spirit, which they think is the cause of all their misfortunes; thus the small pox, which carried away great numbers of them, they say is the "Mannai." Lightning and thunder, of which they have a great dread, they also call "Mannai," and death they call "Mannai." Their wandering habits, combined with their inability to comprehend anything beyond their immediate necessities, has hitherto rendered all attempts to civilize them absolutely abortive. I know of one mission which cost the colonial government nearly 700*l.* per annum for upwards of five years, that did not make one convert among these savages. For appearance sake, however, it had clothed and fed some half dozen children, who, although occasionally dwelling with white men, nevertheless spent most of their time in their favourite haunts in the wilds of the interior.

The Coradgees, who are their wise men, have, they suppose, the power of healing and foretelling. Each tribe possesses one of these learned pundits, and if their wisdom were in proportion to their age, they would indeed be Solons. When sitting at my hut door, ruminating on days gone by, looking with horror on the mighty waste of barrenness lying before me, and praying, for the sake of my live

stock, for rain to change the arid plain into a green and fertile meadow, often has the coradgee joined me, and addressing me in his gibberish, would point to the cloudless sky and to the quarter that the slight breeze came from; then jingling stones in his hand, and taking from his mouth a piece of quartz which he pretended to have vomited, he would assure me that when "Arroka," the sun, went down, there would be rain. As we are prone to believe that which we wish, I was too often his dupe, and rewarded him with what he most wished for, a piece of tobacco. The evening, however, seldom brought proof that the Australian prophet was an inspired one. I never heard of any wonderful cures effected through the agency of these coradgees, and the broken legs and arms which I have seen them set, described, when sound, anything but a straight line.

The corroborry, like many of the habits of the Australian savage, is unknown, I believe, in other parts of the world, and is always performed in the evening, when the blacks muster for the occasion, in great numbers, and paint their bodies with pipe-clay and red ochre. They occupy themselves from dusk until it is dark in piling up stumps of trees, boughs, and bark, which, when the night is pretty well advanced, they set fire to, and when the blaze is at its highest the corroborry dance commences to the shouting of old women and the beating of sticks. From the side which is most dark and obscure, the painted figures of the men come forward one by one and form into lines. The immense blaze that proceeds from the

fire is so dazzling that all beyond its immediate neighbourhood is dark as Erebus; the savages who rush swiftly before the bonfire appear to rise from the earth. Their movements, which are at first slow, soon become quick and fantastical, their eyes glare fearfully, and are all constantly directed towards one unseen object, and as the excitement increases they jump up perpendicularly, and with a simultaneous movement, always taking care to keep time to the shouting and beating of sticks. Their gestures and attitudes are of the wildest kind, and the corroborry is not unlike what one might imagine of a ballet executed by the denizens of the zoological gardens. The women, who are not allowed to partake in the corroborry dance, sit silent or applauding spectators, and the young men skip about with extra ferocity when they hear the "bougerais" (bravo) of the women.

The fights of the blacks generally occur where no European can see them; I was, however, once witness to a single combat that took place on the Bogan between two of them, and which, through the treacherous conduct of the Bogan tribe, I am afraid proved fatal to one of them. The one who I believe was murdered had come alone from the Lachlan river to visit the Bogan tribe, and had lived on friendly terms with them for some days. This amicable feeling, however, did not exist long, it being soon interrupted by a Bogan black well known among the whites by the name of "Fighting Jemmy," who in the heat of an argument made a remark on the

Lachlan tribe of so offensive a nature that the visitor retired from the group. However, in less than ten minutes afterwards a *whamera* whizzed past where I was standing, and with unerring aim struck Fighting Jemmy on the arm. I shall never forget the cooing, shouting, roaring, cracking of nulla-nullas, jumping, skipping, and dancing about which ensued; but above all was to be heard distinctly the wild shout of the Lachlan black, who, with his right hand full of spears, his whaddie and heleman in his left, was skipping in the air, shouting his war cry as if in defiance of the whole assembled Bogan tribe. His appearance was most wild, and he had evidently occupied the time of his withdrawal in preparing for fight, as his stomach, legs, and arms were painted with red ochre, and his body was slimy and slippery from the grease with which it was covered. The general noise and shouting soon subsided, and the Lachlan black and Fighting Jemmy set to work right manfully; but, after a quarter of an hour's hard fighting, it was apparent that Fighting Jemmy had neither the dexterity nor enduring courage of the other, under the influence of whose nulla-nulla he had five or six times kissed the ground. The victory was decidedly in the hands of the Lachlan black, when a spear thrown from a distance pierced the calf of his leg; as quick as thought the Lachlan black stooped, drew the spear out of his leg, and drove it into the forehead of his adversary. Now, never doubting, I suppose, that he had conquered, he threw down his weapons and shouted for joy. His

happiness, however, was short lived, for he was seized by the Bogan blacks, and carried away with much haste; and, although I tried both threats and rewards with the Bogan tribe, I never could find out the fate of the Lachlan hero, but was told that they did not like my interference, and that they would become "coolie;" in other words, that there would be enmity between them and me.

The Bogan tribe I disliked more than any of the other tribes I had met in the colony. They are avowed cannibals, and had shown themselves, in more than one instance, very fond of white men's flesh. I had a personal encounter with this tribe, a short time after I arrived in the colony, which has served perhaps to keep alive my animosity to them; the circumstances were these:—Having purchased a herd of cattle in the Bogan river, I had occasion to visit them, to receive delivery of the herd, and as there was no station within seventy miles, and no beaten track to it, I took a black as my guide from the Macquarie river. The day after my arrival at the station, all the men being otherwise occupied, I despatched my guide with the cattle for the purpose of giving them food and water, but with strict injunctions not to go more than a mile from the hut, and about noon I saddled my horse and went out to inspect my new purchase. I found, however, that my sable friend had exceeded his orders, for when I overtook the cattle they were distant from the hut more than three miles, and as I believed them close at hand I had not taken my pistols with me; while, to add to my dis-

comfort, I got occasional glimpses of black eyes and anything but amicable countenances, peering from behind every bush. Knowing that there was not a moment to be lost, I immediately turned the leading cattle homewards and desired my black friend to assist me in driving them in that direction. The words had scarcely passed my lips when I felt something heavy strike the back of my head, and I fell stunned from my horse; the last thing that I remember was a silvery headed old rascal standing with his foot on my chest, and his spear raised as if in the act of putting an end to me. Hours passed, and it was nearly dark when I recovered my senses, and after many of the faces that were familiar to me in childhood had, as if in a vision risen before me, the reality of my position gradually became apparent, and I found myself lodged in my hut with white faces around me. I learned that my horse returning to the hut without his rider had excited suspicion, and the stockmen, who had by that time returned from their work, immediately started in search for me, well provided with fire-arms, and that when they found me, the cattle were gone, and I was extended senseless on the ground, while the Macquarie black, who assured the men that his intercession had saved my life, was sitting beside me. His story was, that while a party of the blacks drove away the cattle, the elders of the tribe remained for the purpose of butchering me, but that he interfered, representing me as a new and good master, who had just come over the great waters, one very fond of the blacks, and always giving

them tea, sugar, and tobacco. He has so frequently since told me the same story, that I cannot doubt that but for him some of the Bogan tribe would have slaked their thirst with my blood, and have eaten human flesh that day in preference to beef; indeed, I was for some time kept alive to the physical reality of the adventure, by a contusion in the back of my head, which remained painful for weeks. The stunning effects of the blow passed over, and before long, attended by the stockmen, and well armed, I went in search of the cattle; when, after a day's hard riding, we came upon them, but upon counting the herd I found there were fifty short, these I have no doubt were taken into the fastnesses by the blacks, as they have never since been seen. The whole affair was reported by me immediately to the nearest civil authority, but after wasting two months in the vain hope that some decided steps would be taken to preserve the lives of my men and my property, I returned to the Bogan, and finding matters wearing even a worse aspect than formerly, I collected my cattle and drove them to a station on the Lachlan river. I have had reason since to rejoice in the step I then took, as a few months afterwards it appeared that the gentleman to whom I handed over my Bogan station, and who entertained a better opinion of the blacks, was obliged to vacate it with a loss of 500 head of cattle.

Cattle and sheep stealing is now so common among the aborigines (and in most cases goes unpunished), that thousands of sheep and hundreds of cattle have

been taken by them in daylight from their white protectors, and sometimes the shepherds killed. In a district where the population did not exceed 1000, there were, in less than twelve months, twenty white men butchered by the very savages whom some mis-called philanthropists seem to regard at least as much as their countrymen. I have seen enough of the desert, of the savage spirit of freedom, and of these cannibals whom men talk of without having seen, to make me think more leniently of crimes that are perpetrated in the lowest grades of civilization, I will not even exclude the iron gangs. No settler can look upon the atrocious crimes which, devised by the cunning of the elders of the Australian tribes, are executed by the strength and activity of the young men, without shuddering, and asking where is the protection for which he is taxed, and all the colonists agree that one of the greatest grievances the New South Wales settler suffers, is the want of proper protection for the herds, flocks, and men, in the distant localities.

CHAPTER II.

Animals — Platypus — Feathered tribe — Reptiles — Insects — Destructive fly — Fish — Trees — Minerals — Mountains — Rivers — Soil — Australian Plains.

NEW SOUTH WALES is much favoured in being almost entirely exempt from ferocious animals. The native dog, which is the only beast of prey, bears much resemblance in size, colour, and shape of the head, to the English fox, but is stronger and more tenacious of life. Hunting this animal affords much amusement to the settlers, and as the native dog has a trail, those who can afford it use the fox-hound; but a cross between the greyhound and mastiff, called by the colonist the kangaroo dog, is most generally used; the runs vary from ten to thirty minutes, and although this sport is not to be compared with fox-hunting, yet, with a good nag under me, with a couple of good dogs, and the Australian fox in view I have enjoyed myself much. The native dog sometimes commits depredations among the flocks of

the settlers, but as a loud howl always gives notice of its approach, and as it is easily driven away, the settlers very properly blame the men in charge and make them answerable for any losses that may be thus sustained.

Kangaroos are of six different species, viz. the forester, the flyer, the wallaby, the wallaroo, the kangaroo rat, and the kangaroo mouse. They are all harmless and inoffensive; their characters and appearance, excepting in size and colour, are the same throughout. The head is small, the eyes large and black, the ears long and pointed, the fore legs and feet are very small, the fore feet are divided into five toes furnished with claws, and hang down in front apparently as useless appendages, except when employed in pulling and holding the grass and roots on which the kangaroo feeds. The hind quarters are remarkable for their size and muscular power; the hind legs are long and powerful, and are alone used by the kangaroo when taking its immense bounds. The hind feet are large and divided into three toes; the two extreme toes are small, but the central one, which is nearly the size of the whole foot, is armed with a large claw, capable, in the larger species, of tearing its pursuer to pieces, whether man or dog. The sole of the hind foot, which is an elastic substance, yields to pressure like Indian rubber, and assists the kangaroo in taking its gigantic leaps. The tail, which is long and muscular, is not used, as some have supposed, by the kangaroo when jumping; it sometimes serves as a

prop when the animal is standing erect, although more frequently it is whisking to and fro with a power and rapidity that renders coming to close quarters with its proprietor dangerous. The female kangaroos produce one at a time, and when hunted they pick up their young one, and place it in their ventral pouch, but if close pressed they adopt the first law of nature, throw out their young one, and look out for themselves.

The forester, sometimes weighing more than 250 lbs., and the flyer, weighing nearly 100 lbs., are the kangaroos which afford most sport to the bush hunter. Young settlers are generally provided with four or five well-trained kangaroo dogs, remarkable alike for their strength and fleetness, for the purpose of wiling away an hour or two during an idle day, or giving amusement to a friendly visitor. Should the country through which the chase is, be thickly wooded, or very rocky, the kangaroo invariably escapes; but if an open plain, or thinly-wooded country, the run, which often lasts for an hour without a check, generally ends with a death. The kangaroo sometimes takes to the high lands, where it falls an easy victim, not being able to make way over hilly ground; but if not exhausted by running it stands at bay and faces its pursuers; and if the foremost dog is young, and not well trained, he is sure of either having his ribs broken by the stroke of the kangaroo's tail, or more unfortunately, if hugged by the fore legs of the kangaroo, the finishing stroke will be given to the poor dog by the powerful toe

and claw of the hind foot. When the forester and flyer are hard pressed they make for the nearest water, well knowing that there they are most formidable; and if fortunate enough to reach it, they can keep the dogs at bay by striking, seizing, and throwing them under water.

The wallaroo kangaroo is of a darkish red colour, and weighs about 60 lbs.; it is generally found in swampy places, and is often hunted by the bushmen in dry weather. The wallaby, or rock kangaroo, is of a dark-grey colour, with a red muzzle; it weighs about 20 lbs., and frequents rocky places. It affords famous sport for those who are so fond of shooting as to make light of climbing hills and high rocks under a vertical sun. The wallabys are to be seen only on the hottest days, basking themselves in the sun, on the tops of the highest rocks, and their senses of hearing and smelling are so acute, that the sportsman must step lightly, and be cautious in keeping them to windward of him, until he gets within rifle range. There is, however, so much trouble and disappointment attending this method of stealing on the wallaby, that those who indulge most in this sport find it pleasanter to lie quietly in a pass in the rocks, while half-a-dozen blacks, who are easily obtained for this purpose, drive the kangaroos within range of their guns.

The kangaroo rat is about the size of a rabbit, and the kangaroo mouse is not much larger than our English one.

The flesh of all the species of kangaroo is much

prized by the aborigines, and even the hind quarters, which are tough and sinewy, they devour with great *gout*. The tail, which is the only part of the animal that is fat, makes excellent soup, and is not unlike ox-tail. The skins, which are sometimes used by the aborigines for cloaks, make famous leather, and boots made from it, besides being soft and pleasant to the feet, are more adapted for the Australian climate than those made of any other leather.

There are two or three species of opossums. These animals are about the size of an English cat, and their colour is light grey. They inhabit the hollows of trees and branches, and feed upon the leaves of the gum tree. Their flesh, which is white, and has an aromatic, but not unpleasant flavour, is much prized, and forms perhaps the chief article of food among the natives.

The wild cat is the size of a rabbit, and is covered with a beautiful and speckled fur. They are to be found only in some parts of the colony, and in these places the poultry yards suffer much from their visits.

The bandicoot is the size of a large rat, of a dark brown colour; it feeds upon roots, and its flesh is good eating. This animal burrows in the ground, and it is from this habit, I suppose, that when hungry, cold, or unhappy, the Australian black says that he is as miserable as the bandicoot. In some parts of the colony there is a species of sloth, but I have never seen any of them.

The same peculiarities in their generative organs pervade all these animals, and all the females have the ventral sac or pouch at the lower extremity of the stomach.

The most singular quadruped in New Holland (if quadruped it be) is the *ornithoryncus paradoxus*, or platypus. It is found in all parts of the colony, and frequents the deepest holes in the rivers, where, when swimming about, it is frequently shot by the sportsman. The most remarkable external feature of this animal is the mouth, which is as like a duck's bill as one thing can be to another. The fore feet are webbed, and the body, which is a foot in length, is covered with a very thick and beautiful fur of a dark colour. The male platypus has attached to its hind feet a small bony spur, and in this spur there is a canal scarcely perceptible to the naked eye, filled with poison, and from this venom, it is said, some of the aborigines have died. The female platypus has not this claw, and she is declared, by many of the colonists, who speak from personal observation, to be oviparous.

The feathered tribe in New South Wales are as numerous and remarkable for their beautiful plumage as some of them are for their novelty of character.

The largest and most singular Australian bird is the emu; it bears a great resemblance to the ostrich, and is covered with feathers of a dark hue, which are short and wiry-looking, having at the first glance the

appearance of dark goats' hair. This bird has small flappers, or tufts, which even when extended are so excessively small, that they have no apparent affinity to, and seem to serve none of the purposes of wings. The emu, when standing or walking erect, is a majestic and graceful-looking bird, measuring nearly six feet in height. It has a great quantity of fat immediately under the skin, which, when rendered into a fine oil, is a famous specific for rheumatism, and beats all the Rowland's macassar in the world for invigorating, and perhaps restoring hair. The digestion of this bird resembles that of the ostrich, and I have seen persons amusing themselves with feeding a domesticated emu with alternate pieces of bread, cigars, nails, and hoop-iron, which seemed all much and equally relished. Its flesh is coarse, but is, nevertheless, greatly prized by the aborigines. Its eggs, although a little smaller than those of the ostrich, are very large, and of a beautiful green colour. The emu runs very swiftly, and the horse and dog that can keep pace with it must be of the first calibre. It has an ugly knack of kicking out with its hind leg when hotly pursued, and that so forcibly as to kill the dog, and terminate the day's chase.

Next in size among the birds of the colony is the native companion. This bird stands about three or four feet high, and its feathers are of a beautiful slate colour. The native companion flies heavily, and is easily shot.

The black swan is about the size of a white

one; it is found upon the inland lakes and rivers. The down of this bird is of a beautiful and fine description; the flesh is good, and, when well dressed, not unlike venison.

The Egyptian ibis inhabits New South Wales, but is seldom seen near the white man's dwelling. There are many different species of ibis to be met with during the hot season, and most of them are of beautiful plumage.

The native turkey is a large bird of the bustard kind, weighing twenty pounds; the legs are white, and of a delicate flavour, while the breasts and wings are brown and tough.

Wild ducks are very abundant, and of many varieties; the plumage of some of them is very beautiful, particularly the pink-eyed duck. The Australian ducks are much esteemed by the sportsman as well as by the epicure.

Quails, during the summer months, are seen in thousands, and there are few settlers who do not set the hottest day in December at defiance for the purpose of bagging ten or twenty brace of these birds.

Snipe and plover are numerous, and are more easily shot, and quite as good eating as they are in England.

There is an infinite variety of pigeons in New South Wales, and almost every day a fresh specimen of this bird is found. Their plumage is as beautiful as it is varied, while they are of all sizes, from that of a sparrow to that of a fat capon.

The hawks and eagles form a large and beautiful class among the feathered tribe of Australia, and the admiration of every one must be attracted alike to the small and beautiful white hawk hovering over its prey, and to the gigantic eagles actually unable to get out of the way, being gorged with the carrion that has collected them together.

The species of birds most abundant in the colony, and the plumage of which is most varied, are the parrots and cockatoos. They are found in all parts of New Holland, and are quite as common as sparrows are in England. The eye becomes so accustomed to this class of birds in a very short time, that those of the most beautiful plumage fly past without attracting the attention of the common observer. These birds can be taught to speak and whistle, although their natural screech is most discordant.

The different species of small birds are excessively numerous, and nature, as if to compensate them for their want of ear (for none of them deserve the character of singing birds), seems to have deprived the rainbow of its colours, and to have bestowed them, even more harmoniously mingled, on the smaller birds of Australia.

The reptile tribe in Australia is very numerous, and they are for the most part oviparous. The difference between the venomous and innoxious serpent is only to be known by a minute inspection of their mouth and teeth; and although the general opinion is, that the brown snake, which is nine feet,

the whip snake, which is four, and the death adder, which is two feet in length, are equally venomous, I never met any, even amongst the oldest colonists, who knew of a death being caused by the bite of any Australian reptile, except that of the death adder. The jaws and throat of the death adder, which, when in a quiescent state, are not out of proportion to its size, must be excessively lax and dilatable, as I have found in the stomach of a death adder a couple of bandicoots, as complete in all their proportions as when alive, and consequently they must have been swallowed whole. The carpet snake is not a poisonous reptile, and disappears quickly on the approach of man. The average size of this snake is ten or twelve feet, but some have been found as long as nineteen feet. They entwine themselves, like the boa constrictor, round the body of their victim, and it would seem they find enough of prey in the desert, as they never molest the sheep or cattle of the settler. This snake derives its name from the splendour of its skin, which is beautifully marked—I had almost said—painted. The diamond snake, which is very beautiful, is in length about ten feet, and has the same characteristics as the carpet snake.

The lizards vary in size, and are very numerous. The largest and finest is the guana; its general colour is green, but, like the chameleon, it frequently changes to a white and brown hue; the back is much serrated, the skin is very thick, and the flesh, which is white and delicate, is good eating. The guana is

about three feet in length, and, although a formidable looking animal, it is quite harmless, and lives, as the other lizards do, upon vegetables and insects. The characteristics of the guana extend through the whole of the lizard family of New Holland, the smallest of which is not two inches in length.

Scorpions, centipedes, and tarantulas, are all to be found; but their stings, which are painful, sometimes causing much inflammation, are never fatal.

To the naturalist, the insects of New South Wales afford a wide field of research, and, I believe, of novelty; while the common observer cannot fail to regard them as beautiful. The coleoptera order stands first in the richness and diversity of its tints, varying in size from nearly two inches in length to an atom almost invisible to the naked eye. They are to be found in every part of the colony in great abundance, and a collection of them is soon and easily made. The gryllus order is very numerous, and are very annoying in the summer months, whether in the shape of the locust on the sea coast, or of the grasshopper in the interior. I do not know if the former is the Egyptian locust; but if so, it is more harmless than in days of old, and its bark is worse than its bite, for although always cricketing and buzzing, I never heard of its committing depredations. In the summer of 1842, a swarm of large whitish coloured grasshoppers, or locusts, never before seen in the colony, paid a visit to some of the Australian rivers, and after mowing down more certainly and closely than the scythe ever did, the

grass on the adjoining plains, they vanished in the same mysterious manner in which they came; but the havoc these insects committed is almost incredible. Miles and miles of beautiful pasture land were desolated by them in the space of a week; and the only thing I can compare their infinite number and density to, is a storm of snow falling in such rapid flakes as to prevent both man and horse from facing it. This, I believe, is the first instance on record of these migratory grasshoppers, or whatever insect they may be, having visited Australia, and I know full well that the settlers pray that it may be the last.

Moths are very plentiful, and of all sizes. The caterpillar, or grub of the large moth, found in the interior, forms no inconsiderable item in the repasts of the aborigines. The sphinx moths are numerous, and their many oblong-shaped nests, hanging from the boughs of the swamp oak, present a prominent object to the eye of the traveller. The flies are very troublesome in summer, and being very prolific, great care is requisite to protect meat from their visits; indeed fresh meat can scarcely be kept sound for much more than twelve hours during the hotter months, unless great attention be paid to its preservation. The ravages committed by the mosquitos during the hot season, on newly arrived emigrants, are truly dreadful. They pay their addresses as assiduously to the sinewy and robust man as to the fair and beautiful girl; nor while they are intoxicating themselves, with the blood of the plump and fat, do they reject the thinner blood

of the invalid. It would seem as if these venomous flies had instituted a tariff of their own, taxing all importations from foreign parts, with an *ad valorem* bleeding, and allowing all who had subjected themselves to their laws for two or three months to rove about with impunity.

Sharks are to be found in the bays and inlets of New South Wales. They have been seen in water not exceeding six feet in depth by persons while bathing; but I have never heard of their having indulged their love for human flesh at the expense of any of the inhabitants of the colony. Whales were, a few years ago, very abundant along the coast; but are now comparatively very scarce. Some account for their decrease by alleging, that the whalers contented themselves with harpooning the calves or young whales, on account of their being obtained with less trouble and expense than the old ones; and as whales breed but once in two years, and are much attached to their young, they naturally went in search of some place where their offspring would be more free from danger. Others again, with greater reason perhaps, attribute the present scarcity to the well-known migratory habits of the whale.

The Sydney market can boast neither of the variety nor delicacy of its fish, although they are very abundant, and by consequence cheap. The best kinds of salt-water fish are the small, bream, and whiting; these the most fastidious persons would eat with pleasure; but the larger snapper, rock cod, oysters,

Australian lobsters, and others with which the market abounds, would be objected to by an English palate. The fresh-water fish are much prized by the settlers in the interior, particularly a fish called by the colonists codfish; it weighs from two to twenty pounds, the flesh is excessively white, and forms a light and agreeable food. It is frequently dried in the same way as the Newfoundland cod, in which state many prefer it. It bears but little resemblance to the sea cod, either in appearance or taste. The eel fish, so called from its resemblance to an eel, in the shape of its head and tail, weighs frequently five or six pounds; it is plump like the cod fish, and its flesh is equally good. The river mullet is also a good eating fish. A small crayfish, called by the aborigines "*morramma*," is better eating than any shell fish I ever tasted, and is very abundant and easily caught.

The trees in New South Wales, which are remarkable and many of them useful, have, for the most part but little pretension to beauty; and it is strange, that while fruit trees in the highest perfection and of all varieties, from the gooseberry bush to the pomegranate and custard apple trees, luxuriate in Australia; the soil has not one indigenous fruit tree. The trees stand far apart, and most of them are scantily clothed with leaves, which seem never to fall off but to live, even when all sap has left the parent stem: the leaves are very aromatic, and to their antiseptic virtues I have heard some attribute the purity of the atmosphere and the infrequency of

disease; and it is notorious throughout the colony that stagnant waters emit no offensive effluvia, and carrion even has not its most disgusting attribute. The foliage is of a dark sombre green, the trunks are naked, and their larger boughs are for the most part scraggy and lifeless, and whether isolated or in clusters, the general appearance of the Australian trees is very far from being either picturesque or beautiful.

The forests are frequently on fire, which in a colder clime might be magnificent and agreeable, but as the fires happen in New South Wales during the warmest weather, the intense heat and lurid light proceeding from them, combined with the rays of an almost vertical sun, render these conflagrations far from pleasant to the traveller in the bush. Some of the colonists contend that these fires originate in the friction of the boughs of the trees during the high winds, but whatever may be the cause, the effect is beneficial to the settler, as they burn the long and hard grasses which, after the first shower of rain, is replaced by other more fresh and more nutritious.

The most common tree in the colony is the blue gum tree, or eucalyptus. The larger ones luxuriate on the banks of rivers, near inland lagoons; and in these positions grow to such an enormous size, that through their means the eye, from an elevated site, can trace the meanderings of a narrow stream, at a distance of thirty miles. The timber of this tree is rather heavy, it has a close and compact grain, and is of a reddish colour. But for this wood the settler would be badly

off indeed, and it is invaluable to him, if only for the purpose of making the drays, which alone could carry tons of produce and supplies over precipitous and rocky roads.

The white gum tree is also very abundant; the timber is of a light colour, and the grain is not so compact as that of the blue gum. It is well adapted for flooring, and is much used in the interior for making slabs for huts and weatherboards. The iron bark tree is a most useful one to the colonist; the wood, which is of a brown colour and good quality, splits well, and is used throughout the colony for fencing, making stock yards for cattle and pens for sheep.

The string bark tree is also useful, and its bark, which is of a fibrous texture, often more than an inch in thickness, parts easily from the wood, and may be obtained ten or twelve feet in length, and seven or eight in breadth. This bark is much used in constructing shepherds' huts and temporary buildings, and it also answers the purpose of slates or shingles for the bush hut and cottage.

The cedar tree is very abundant in some parts of the colony, and being easily worked, it makes cheap and beautiful furniture. It requires a practised eye, and minute inspection, to distinguish between this wood when polished and mahogany, and for my own part I never knew the difference between a cedar and mahogany sideboard in an upholsterer's shop, until I asked their respective prices. The doors of all the houses in Sydney, and in the better description of cottages in the interior

are made of cedar; but beautiful as this wood is, it is not uncommon to see these doors painted blue, white, or other colours, according to the taste, or rather whim, of the respective inhabitants.

The river oak (*casuarina*) grows on the banks of rivers, and having thick foliage, forms a pleasant and useful shade for cattle during the heat of the day; it is very hard and will not split. The timber resembles in its grain the English oak, and is the only wood in the colony well adapted for making felloes of wheels, yokes for oxen, and staves for casks.

Clusters of trees, bearing much resemblance to the pine, are frequently found on ridges in the dry parts of the country. The wood is of a yellow colour, very compact, and when burnt leaves an ash white as snow, and emits an agreeable perfume.

The myall tree (*acacia pendula*) is the most picturesque tree of New South Wales. The leaves have the appearance of being frosted, and the branches droop like the weeping willow. These trees are seen to best advantage when, as borders, they surround grassy plains of two or three miles in extent, in which position they are generally to be met with. The wood of this tree has alternate shades of yellow and brown, and its perfume is as delightful, and nearly as strong, as sandal wood. The wood being very hard, is used by the aborigines for making their boomerangs, and other war instruments.

The mimosa is a very graceful tree; the foliage is of a light green colour, and its bough also droops like the weeping willow: the yellow flowers with

which the mimosa is decked throw out a perfume sweeter than the laburnum; and the gum, which exudes in great quantities from this tree, is said not to be dissimilar to gum arabic.

The Australian myrtles, or tea trees, are to be found in thick clusters, shading rocky springs. The diameter of the trunk is seldom more than three inches, while its height is often thirty feet. Its leaves I have seen made into a beverage called tea. It, however, was loathsome, and had not the slightest resemblance to any known Chinese tea.

The species of palm most frequently met with is called by the colonists the cabbage tree, and from its leaves is made the hat almost universally worn by the colonists in the interior.

The tulip wood, with its variegated flowers, and delightful perfume, grows in abundance,—as does also the sassafras, with its sweet smelling bark; many different species of Banksia grow in great plenty in the neighbourhood of Sydney, and from the density of their foliage are very ornamental.

There are other trees to be found in the colony, but they are peculiar to certain districts, such as the fern tree which is peculiar to the districts south of Sydney, rising in a naked and rough stem to the height of twenty feet, and then at once it spreads forth its immense leaves. To these may be added varieties of beautiful and large palms that grow in the southern parts of the colony; the gigantic pine of the northern districts, and the tree named by the colonists, from a peculiarity in

its grain, beef tree, Australian maple, and black wood; these latter grow in the interior of the colony, but are not found in great quantities.

The tree which has excited most interest in the colony is the banian tree lately discovered to the northward of Moreton Bay. It is described as an immensely high tree, with a trunk of enormous size, continually sending forth branches which droop to the ground, and there take root, each branch forming a trunk of considerable dimensions, giving to one tree the appearance of a large cluster of trees, and the circumference of this remarkable production is some hundreds of feet. Milton has planted a tree in the Garden of Eden, which in description much resembles the banian tree.

“ The fig tree, not that for fruit renowned,
But such as at this day to Indians known,
In Malabar or Decan, spreads her arms
Branching so broad and long, that in the ground
The bended twigs take root, and daughters grow
About the mother tree,” &c.

A few miles from the sea coast many acres are to be seen strewn with flowers, that bear in external appearance a close resemblance to heaths, mingled with curious and beautiful plants, wild vines, and other parasitical creepers, towering above the undergrowth of many-coloured flowers; the majestic waratha, with its broad green leaf, and its rich purple flower stands erect, and seems to assert the superiority of Nature's garden in Australia to that of man. In the interior, and places where the soil is

richer and not so sandy, flowers and creeping plants have given place to the more useful grasses and wild herbage, which grow in the bush in almost endless variety.

Although little research has hitherto been devoted to the mineral productions of New South Wales, the country is found to be well supplied with coal, iron, lime, granite, and slate. In the district of the Hunter an extensive coal field has been worked, which supplies with fuel the various steam-engines and shipping of Sydney; wood, mixed with coal, is generally used in the dwelling-houses of Sydney. Seams of coal have been found in all parts of the colony, and in all the specimens of colonial coal hitherto examined, foliage and fibres of plants are visible. Iron stone is very abundant, and is most frequently found in the vicinity of mountain streams, to which it generally gives a highly chalybeate taste. Limestone is also plentiful in all parts of the colony, and is as useful to the settler as to the builder. Free stone and slate have only within late years, been much used, and the new buildings of Sydney testify that the former cannot be excelled in any part of the world. Copper exists in great abundance, and there are few districts that have not their copper mines.

A coast range of mountains which runs almost the whole length of the colony takes its rise at about one hundred miles south of Sydney, and although the range extends many hundred of miles, I do not think that the highest peak is 7,000 feet above the level of the sea. These hills at the point where they rise

highest, are called the Blue Mountains, and the atmosphere there is so excessively cool, and the breeze so refreshing, that the wayworn and sun-scorched traveller rests himself for the day, as much to luxuriate in a delightful climate, as to enjoy the grandeur of the surrounding scenery. Indeed, so wildly magnificent is the "Valley of the Gorse," and the "Pass of Mount Victoria;" that even the hardened convict, and the ignorant savage stop to gaze in wonder and admiration. There are few hills besides the coast range of importance, either with respect to their height or extent; but from the peculiarity of their geological structure, and volcanic appearance, they are highly interesting, particularly the burning hill of "Ingin," which may be seen at a distance of seven miles, sending forth its smoke.

The rivers in New South Wales, which are neither large nor very numerous, take their rise from the respective sides of the coast range of mountains; those that run to the east are large in comparison to the westerly ones. The largest river in the colony is the Clarence, it empties itself into the sea on the east coast below Moreton Bay, is three miles in breadth, and is beautifully studded with small islands. It is navigable for vessels of considerable tonnage, for above forty miles. The Hunter runs easterly through one of the finest and most productive districts in the colony. It also is navigable for many miles. The Macleay, the Hastings, the Brisbane, and the Hawkesbury, all run into the east coast between twenty-eight and thirty-two degrees south latitude;

they are large and for considerable distances navigable rivers. The westerly waters generally do not in the summer months deserve the name of rivers; there are, however, exceptions, and the Darling, the Murray, and the Murumbidgee rivers, to which all the other westerly waters are tributaries, are during the whole year running streams of considerable dimensions. The course of the Australian rivers, can always be discerned by the different fish they produce. As for instance, the codfish is never found in the easterly rivers, and the mullet does not inhabit the westerly ones. There are not more than two or three inland lakes of importance in the whole of New Holland.

When the extent of country is considered, the evaporating powers of an almost tropical sun, the absorbing qualities of the beds of sand, on which most of the Australian waters lie, the almost total absence of inland lakes, the scarcity of rivers, and the occasional droughts, it will be seen, that only by artificial means, can a sufficient supply of water be obtained. It has ever seemed to me extraordinary, that settlers, of nearly half a century's experience, should have improvidently employed their convict servants, in enclosing parks, and building large and beautiful mansions, when at a hundredth part of the trouble and expense, they could have formed reservoirs and dams that would in cases of drought have supplied water for their flocks and herds, and in cases of emergency, served for the purposes of irrigation. The late droughts of 1838, which caused a great

fatality among the herds and flocks of Australia, has not been without its good effects, for it has directed the attention of some of the colonists to the propriety of devising means for retaining the water that at certain seasons falls in great abundance.

The soil in most localities of New South Wales is much diversified; on the east coast of the colony there is, however, one uniform belt of sand, bearing at best a few stunted shrubs, extending in breadth from one to thirty miles. This sandy and sterile margin, which is caused by the absence of alluvial deposits, gives to the temporary visitor to Australia a bad and unfair impression of the general appearance of the country; and many who have paid cursory visits to the colony, express their surprise that so barren a soil should be able to produce in such abundance every vegetable and grain required by man. On the borders of the bleakest coast line, if not actually upon it, the olive tree has been found to flourish as well as it does in those countries of which it is a native. Receding further from the coast line, the soil becomes well adapted for the mulberry tree: this tree grows in most parts of the colony, with scarcely any culture; and there can be no reason why silk should not be manufactured of as good quality in New South Wales as in any other part of the world. The orange tree grows almost wild in the neighbourhood of Sydney; indeed so prolific are these trees in New South Wales, that one would almost fancy they were indigenous to the colony.

Vines, which for the most part are trained in trellises, grow luxuriantly; and the general undulating feature of the country affords many gentle slopes and favourable aspects for the growth of the vine; and as it is now notorious that the vine has grown in great luxuriance in all spots where it has been planted, it is but fair to infer that the colony will in time produce the wines of Europe, Maderia, and of the Cape of Good Hope; and perhaps many a delicious and curious wine now unknown; at the same time it must be confessed that most of the wine hitherto made in the colony is most execrable stuff. This, however, is not to be wondered at, as but little or no attention has been paid to the enlistment of the services of those who understand the culture of the vine. Indeed the Australian colonist is in general a great stickler for intuitive knowledge; and were it not for this failing, many useful and highly remunerative productions would long ere this have increased the list of colonial exports.

Many parts of the colony are highly favourable to the growth of tobacco; and within the last two years, tobacco has been manufactured from the colonial leaf equal to that of America; and if the same attention which is now paid to the cultivation and manufacture of this leaf continue, there can be little doubt that in the course of a year or two the use of foreign tobacco will not only be superseded throughout the Australian colonies, but that also the exports of the country will, through the means of colonial tobacco, be greatly increased.

The quality of the soil in New South Wales seems to be regulated by the nature of the high lands ; and where limestone, granite, and trap rocks occur, the surrounding land will, in general, be found to be well adapted for the plough : wheat on such soils, and under *proper cultivation*, is said to average from twenty to thirty bushels, although the average crop is not more than thirteen bushels to the acre throughout the colony. It is but justice, however, to say that the supply of wheat, which of late years has, for the most part, exceeded the demand, keeps the price of grain so low, that the farmer works his ground generally in a cheap and slovenly manner, taking from one soil frequently thirteen and fourteen crops of wheat, without ever once manuring the ground ; while every third year, without either ploughing or sowing, the farmer reaps no inconsiderable crop from wheat self-grown. The seed time for wheat in the warmer parts is as early as March, and in the colder, often as late as September. The harvest time is from the latter end of November, to the end of January. Oats and barley are sown and reaped in the same months ; the former, which is sown once in three years, is used for fodder, and yields on an average about three tons of hay to the acre ; oaten hay must be very nutritious, as a horse, poor as a skeleton, fed upon it alone, for a few weeks, will be, at the end of that time, in first-rate condition. Barley yields much about the same return as wheat, and is in great demand for the pur-

poses of colonial distillation and brewing. The climate and soil seem more propitious to the growth of maize than of any other grain. It is sown in October and reaped in April, and in proportion to the attention paid to its culture, and the favourableness of the season, it yields from twelve to seventy bushels per acre. Maize is frequently so plentiful that a market, at however low a price, can scarcely be obtained for it.

The soil, formed of decomposed trap and limestone, is very abundant in the colony, and the natural grasses with which it is covered are very saccharine. Such land is supposed to be the best adapted for grazing purposes, and indeed so succulent is the herbage which grows on this land, that it is not uncommon, after a hot summer has scorched and dried up the grass, to find sheep fattening and thriving as well as they could upon new and fresh pasturage.

Nothing strikes the stranger who journeys for the first time into the bush with so much astonishment, as the extensive plains, and the extraordinary rapidity with which their herbage at one time leaves them and again returns. These plains, equal in size to the savannahs of South America, and the prairies of North America, are frequently as level as a bowling green, without a single tree to relieve a sea-like monotony, which in some instances extends for thirty and forty miles. In an excessively hot season, an Australian plain, unprotected from the blighting south-west wind, and unshaded from a burning

sun, has its herbage so completely scorched up, and its naked earth so parched, that it yawns in deep and broad fissures, assuming the appearance of an arid and naked wilderness, without a single spot of green to gladden the eye—a desert without its oasis. There must, however, be some extraordinary regenerating power in the soil of the Australian plain; for, after perhaps a month of perfect nakedness, it will, on the falling of not much more than an ordinary shower, suddenly assume a green tint, and in an incredibly short space of time be covered with grasses, as high and rich as those of English meadows, and of such a fattening quality, as to entirely supersede the use of artificial food for fattening cattle.

The general soil of the colony is, I should say, divided into that which is more or less good, and that which is thoroughly barren and unproductive. In the vicinity of sandstone rocks will always be found a sandy and sterile tract of country, apparently incapable of affording nourishment to the few stunted and sapless eucalyptus bushes, and to the hard and dry grasses with which it is thinly clothed; and, I regret to say, so frequently do such desolate and dreary spots present themselves to the traveller in the bush, that the heart becomes sick, and for the time, perhaps, he envies the lot of the lowest menial in old England.

CHAPTER III.

Sydney — Gardens—Melbourne—Paramatta—Inland Towns—Counties—Population — Convicts — Emancipists — Mechanics — Labourers—Report of the Emigration Committee.

THERE is nothing of interest in the, so to speak, very *modern* country of New South Wales to the antiquarian; it calls up no train of ideas that are associated with the past,—it has no fossil remains of any consequence,—not even the vestige, so far as I know, of any one thing from which the curious might deduce that Australia ever has been different from what it was when Cook landed on its shores. Its political history, likewise, is altogether of the present; it tells only of a country that is in the cradle,—of a country that has but just thrown off its shell, and emerged from a penal into a free settlement,—whose population, in proportion to its extent, is most limited,—whose resources are almost wholly undeveloped and unknown,—and the distance of which from the mother land keeps many even in ignorance

of its existence. But although the past history of the colony is little better than a blank, it may, in the course of time, form an important leaf in the annals of England. At any rate, there can be no doubt that it has made most gigantic strides towards improvement since the days when England, influenced by the reports of the illustrious Cook, and compelled, by its acknowledgment of American independence, to find a place for the transportation of criminals, resolved to establish a penal settlement on the Australian shores; and, should the end be at all commensurate with the beginning, it is not unreasonable to suppose that New South Wales will rise to an importance equal even to that of North America.

In 1787, a fleet, for the purpose of forming New South Wales into a penal settlement, sailed from England, carrying out a governor, officers, two hundred and fifty soldiers, and seven hundred convicts. After a long passage, they arrived at Botany Bay, but not finding this bay so favourable for anchorage as they had been led to expect, they directed their course northward, and discovered Port Jackson, which, from the boldness of the coast, and the narrow inlet to the harbour, Cook and others had passed unnoticed. The Governor, Captain Phillip, with a party of marines, and artificers chosen from among the seamen and convicts, landed, and the noise of the axe and saw soon broke the stillness which had formerly prevailed there. A sufficient space of ground was soon cleared for the encampment of the

whole party; and when all were disembarked on the new settlement, their numbers did not exceed one thousand six hundred and twenty males and females. A house made of canvass, brought out for the governor's use, together with temporary wooden buildings, formed the first Australian settlement, and was named Sydney, after the then secretary of state; but although little more than fifty years have elapsed, these temporary buildings, and many succeeding ones of much more substantial fabric, are now superseded by houses equal to those of any English town.

Sydney is built in a valley, and on gentle slopes, extending upwards from one of the coves or bays of Port Jackson. The streets are long, and run parallel to each other, there being no squares or circular places. The houses are lofty, and some which have been built within the last few years would not do discredit to Belgrave-square. Sydney is purely a commercial town; and its mills, steam engines, high stores, and numerous wharfs, proclaim it such. With the exception of Port Phillip, which although comparatively small, is rapidly increasing in size and importance, Sydney is the only town of much note in New South Wales. The length of the town is about three miles, and the breadth about one mile and a quarter. It contains 5,000 houses, almost all of which are built of stone and brick; and its population, according to the Government census taken in 1841, amounted to 29,973 souls.

There are but few of the public buildings in

Sydney which display much architectural taste. The old Government House, which is a long and melancholy-looking cottage, has been at last superseded by a very magnificent building of the Elizabethan style of architecture. It is built of a very beautiful white freestone; and its site on the eastern side of the town, and on an elevation which rises almost perpendicularly from the sea, together with the grandeur of its structure, gives it a magnificent and imposing appearance: the building alone has already cost the colony I believe upwards of 30,000*l*. St. James's church, which is the principal Episcopalian place of worship, is a plain unpretending brick building, with a tall, and rather handsome spire, which forms a prominent feature in all the views of Sydney. The Roman Catholic church is one of the largest and most conspicuous edifices in Sydney, and is built of freestone, in the form of a cross; its effect, however, on the north and west sides is spoiled by a very ugly and high belfry, much resembling an overgrown sentry-box.

The Sydney market houses, built in the centre of the town, have rather a striking appearance. They consist of a double range of narrow buildings, covered in and divided into numerous small shops, and extending about 200 feet in length. The Courts, the Convict Barracks, and the Legislative House, are large brick buildings, quite destitute of any pretensions to architecture. The present barracks are built of brick, and occupy a large space in the centre of the town; but as land in Sydney has

now become valuable, very extensive barracks are in the course of erection about two miles from the town, and ere long they will supersede those now occupied by regiments quartered in Sydney. The new jail, although not quite finished, promises to be a very fine edifice: it is situated on a hill, distant about a mile from the town, and covers a considerable area of ground; the outer wall is massive, and upwards of thirty feet high; the jail is built of freestone, and I do not doubt it will prove a very strong prison. The new custom-house, and library, neither of which are finished, promise to equal any of the buildings in Sydney.

It is probably from the increasing number of the shops, and their improved character, resembling, as many now do, both outside and within, the shops of the British capital, and from the great change which is observable in the private buildings, where the simple wooden verandah and lobby are fast giving place to the balcony and vestibule, that the visitor at first perceives the rapid strides that Australia has made in fifty years; the number of societies and institutions, however, that have taken root in what little more than fifty years ago was a wilderness, is the better criterion of the immense and rapid improvements that have taken place in New South Wales.

There are five large and commodious Episcopalian churches, besides a missionary congregational church, supported by funds from the London Missionary Society: this church will not accept of any assistance

from the congregation, either for the provision of its minister, or for the purposes of building. St. Andrew's (Dr. Lang's) church, and the Scots' church in Pitt-street, afford ample room for the Presbyterians in Sydney, although other places of worship for Presbyterians are now building. The two Roman Catholic churches, St. Mary's cathedral, and St. Patrick's church, are spacious and fine edifices, and prove that even in New South Wales, where most persons study the useful more than the ornamental, the Roman Catholics are ambitious of excelling in display all other Christians. The Wesleyans form a large part of the community of Sydney, and have five or six chapels, besides numerous day schools. There is one Baptist church, one Australian Methodist chapel, and one Friends' meeting-house. The Jews' synagogue is a small but handsome building; as there are, however, a great number of Israelites in Sydney, most of whom are wealthy, it is very probable that before long, other and larger synagogues will be built.

Among the many religious and charitable societies in Sydney, the most useful are the Auxiliary Bible Society, the Australian Religious Tract Society, the Wesleyan Auxiliary Mission Society, the Ladies' Bible Association, the Benevolent Society for the Relief of the Destitute, the Sydney Dispensary, which in one year relieved not less than 2,000 patients; and a very humane and useful society for the purpose of relieving poor married women during the month of their confinement.

The banks are confessedly too numerous in proportion both to the wealth and number of the community. The Bank of New South Wales, which was established in 1816, is the oldest in the colony, and had for its original capital 300,000*l*. The Bank of Australasia is composed for the most part of English shareholders, and is the only one of the Australian banks that is incorporated by royal charter. The shares of the Union Bank of Australia are held by persons in England, and residents in the colony; and although this bank has not as yet obtained a royal charter, it is looked upon as one of the safest and richest banks in the colony. The Commercial Banking Company had 400,000*l*. for its original capital; but it has lately returned one-fourth of it, having been lying for some time unemployed in its coffers. The Bank of Australia and the Sydney Bank are now no more, having for the last twelve months stopped payment; and although but little loss has been sustained by the shareholders of the latter establishment, those of the former have lost the whole amount of their shares. The savings' bank, established in 1832, is found to be, for the mechanic and labourer, a most useful institution, and if it continues will have a most beneficial effect on the morals of the lower classes. In addition to these banks there are three or four English and Scotch loan companies; they chiefly, if not entirely, consist of British capital, and as the amount of money introduced by them into the colony has been

very considerable, it is to be hoped that their loans and investments were judiciously made.

The scientific and literary institutions, although few, promise in the course of time to become useful and important. The Museum is small, but well supplied with birds, insects, shells, fish, minerals, fossils, and with many curiosities collected in the South Seas. The Australian Floral and Horticultural Societies, which were not instituted until 1838, can boast of many beautiful and rare flowers, plants, and fruits at their half-yearly exhibitions. The Australian Subscription Library, the Commercial Reading Rooms and Library, and the Mechanics' School of Arts, are, besides being useful, rich and well supported institutions. There are many miscellaneous societies in Sydney, and those that have done most good are the Temperance and Total Abstinence Societies, of which there are great numbers. Masonic Lodges, and others of a similar kind, are numerous. The Australian Club consists of about 200 members; the entrance fee is 25*l.*, and the annual subscription is 7*l.* 10*s.*; it is a well conducted establishment, and does credit to a country so new as New South Wales.

There are six newspapers published in Sydney. "The Herald," which is published daily, has the widest circulation, and is considered the most conservative in its politics. The other papers, which are published three times a week, remunerate the proprietors, and have an extensive circulation. The most remarkable characteristics of the Sydney papers are

the advertisements, which usually occupy one half of their columns, and which for the most part consist of rewards offered for strayed or stolen cattle, and notices from some not too uxorious husband that he will no longer be answerable for his wife's debts. A monthly magazine was also started, but I believe it has within the last few months died a natural death. Pamphlets on local subjects, poems, and novels have issued, from time to time, from the Sydney press.

Auctions are held every day, and in various parts of Sydney, where all sorts of colonial produce and foreign goods are exposed for sale; in fact, it is in the auction-room that most of the important sales are made. The market for wheat, maize, hay, and straw, as well as for cattle, is at the extreme end of the town, and during the continuance of a large sale this market resembles, although in miniature, an English cattle fair. Dairy and garden produce are to be purchased at any time throughout the day at the Sydney market; and some idea may be formed of the cheapness of such produce, from the fact that at the close of the year 1844, when I left New South Wales, cheese was selling at 3*d.*, butter at 9*d.*, and bacon and hams at 4*d.* the pound. Fowls and ducks at 2*s.*, and geese and turkeys at 4*s.* and 5*s.* the pair, and beef and mutton at 1*d.* and 1½*d.* the pound; and while carrots, turnips, radishes, and cabbages were selling at 2*d.* the bunch, French beans, peas, pumpkins, cucumbers, lemons, oranges, pears, loquats, and even pomegranates were proportionately low. The

price of potatoes, when I left Sydney, was from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 2*l.* per ton. There are numerous manufactories of cloth, rope, hats, sperm and tallow candles, and soap, and many tanneries, distilleries of rum and gin, and breweries, foundries for casting iron and potteries.

The gardens of Sydney, which are much admired by all visitors, are beautifully situated on a slight elevation or slope, which rises gradually from a small bay on the eastern side of Sydney; they are distant about five minutes' walk from the new Government House. The plan, site, and general arrangement of the gardens are as creditable to those who first designed them, as their uniform good order, the cleanliness of the walks and beds, and progressing improvements are to the present managing committee. A stone wall, about twenty feet in height, and running from east to west, divides the garden into two. The garden on the south and land side is devoted, for the most part, to botanical purposes; in the centre a magnificent Norfolk pine, planted when the garden was planned, attracts the eye, while all around coral trees, with their rich scarlet flowers, bread trees from the Sandwich Islands, olives, pomegranates, acacias covered with misletoe, bananas, mimosas, Banksias, many species of palms, and an infinite variety of other tropical trees are to be seen luxuriating in the same ground with the English ash and oak. The other garden is a beautiful parterre, extending nearly a mile along the coast of a small but lovely bay, and is

tastefully laid out in walks, green slopes, (on which the idle or tired lie at full length,) and grass terraces elevated a few feet above the level of the sea, while all along, flowers of many countries, and of every hue, delight the eye. In this garden there is a pond of twenty feet in diameter, surrounded by weeping willows of immense size; and in the centre of it stands a plain granite obelisk, dedicated to the memory of Allan Cunningham, the Australian botanist. The Sydney gardens present on Sunday afternoons a most animated scene; persons of all classes flock to them, and seem to forget the toils and cares of the past week, in admiration of the beauty and loveliness that surround them.

Hyde Park, which is about two miles in circumference, has been reserved as a pleasure ground for the inhabitants of Sydney; but as it is quite destitute of timber, and consequently unprotected from the sun, it is seldom used by the citizens as a promenade, except towards the cool of the evening. The Government domain, which is delightfully situated and well shaded, is a pleasant drive, and as a regimental band plays there twice a week, it is a general rendezvous for the fashionable idlers of the town on such days.

Sydney, in 1843, was, by an act of the Governor and Legislative Council, declared to be a city, and its inhabitants incorporated. The qualification is 20*l.*; the city is divided into six wards, each of which returns four councillors. A mayor and six

aldermen are chosen by the councillors from among their body. The duties of the corporation, however, seem so closely dovetailed with those of the city police establishment, the heads of which are appointed by the Government, that frequent collisions take place, I believe, between them; certain it is that the respective bodies do not evince much good will towards each other, if one is to judge from the very plain language that has been used at late public meetings.

Melbourne, the second town in importance in the colony, is distant about 500 miles from Sydney, and is the capital of the Port Phillip district, and although only brought prominently into notice as a settlement within the last six or seven years, it has risen to the highest rank among the Australian colonies as a pastoral country and immigration field. The town of Melbourne is built on the east, or the north-east side of the harbour, and as a maritime and commercial place is at a considerable disadvantage, inasmuch as vessels drawing more than eight feet of water cannot come within some distance of the town. The river Yarra Yarra, which empties itself into the sea, close to the place, has given to the coast in the vicinity of Melbourne a tract of richer, and more fertile soil, than most of the Australian coast enjoys. A local superintendent, or deputy-governor, and a local judge, reside at Melbourne. The town within the last two years has been incorporated, and enjoys all the rights and privileges of a free city.

The only other town which has as yet risen to any

important size in the colony is Paramatta. It is situated on the western arm of Port Jackson, and is distant fifteen miles from Sydney. Paramatta contains at present about 6000 inhabitants, and is celebrated for its cloth, which is manufactured by female convicts. The governor of the colony generally spends three or four months of the year at this town, and the vice regal lodge at Paramatta is a fine building, and very superior to the old government house in Sydney. Too much praise cannot be given to the Paramatta cloth. It has quite superseded the use of west of England cloths in the bush, and from its elastic qualities, the horseman finds it a pleasant and durable fabric.

There are many small towns, called by the colonists settlements, throughout New South Wales; but as they are for the most part inland towns, it is not probable that they will become places of much traffic, until the population and productions of the colony have greatly increased. These villages consist, for the most part, of one or two churches, a police office or court-house, a jail, a bank, quarters for a detachment of soldiers, one long line of stores, supplied for the most part with linen cloth, clothing, hardware, and those things which are in most general use in the bush, and public houses or taverns *ad infinitum*. (Every third house is a "public.") The stores are kept by various classes of men; and while the rich and well educated draw from their traffic profits sufficient to enable them to indulge in extravagant luxuries, the illiterate man

sometimes even unable to read and write, makes money so fast, that his taste, whether it leads him to become a useful member of the community, or to hoard his acquired wealth, is marvellously soon gratified. A successful colonial storekeeper will out-Yankee Sam Slick in his soft sawder, his knowledge of human nature, and in bargaining. To the numerous "publics" may be attributed in a great measure the general immorality of the working classes in New South Wales, as through their instrumentality the man of industrious and sober habits is soon changed into a worthless, disgusting, and besotted animal. In a climate so warm as New South Wales, the same quantity of spirits which would not have the effect of exciting the labouring man in England, deprives the Australian labourer of all sense and motion; and it is a subject of general remark, that nearly all the murders and other atrocious crimes with which the assize calendars are filled, have been committed by persons when in a state of drunkenness.

The colony of New South Wales is divided into twenty-one counties, the land outside the boundary line, and Norfolk Island. According to the census of 1841, the population was as follows:—Cumberland, which includes Sydney, 58,108; Northumberland, 9,975; Port Phillip district, 8,107; Camden, 6,286; Durham, 6,238; Argyll, 3,397; Cook, 2,892; Bathurst, 2,465; Macquarie, 2,409; Murray, 2,111; St. Vincent, 1,762; Brisbane, 1,560; Rox-

burgh, 1,520; Gloucester, 1,424; Hunter, 999; Georgiana, 749; Westmoreland, 619; King, 598; Bligh, 566; Wellington, 510; Phillip, 453; beyond the boundaries, 12,711; Norfolk Island, 2,187. These amount in all to 130,835. A census taken in 1836 makes the population of the colony to amount in that year to 77,096.

In comparing the census of 1836 with that of 1841, I find that the county of St. Vincent (comparatively not a new district) has increased nearly 200 per cent. in five years, or 40 per cent. in one year; while the districts of Port Phillip, Moreton Bay, and others, had no place in the census of 1836. It is a fact, which may argue much for the future advancement of the colony, that while England takes forty-two years, and France 105 years, to double their population, New South Wales, according to the three last censuses, doubles itself in seven.

For every hundred males in the colony, there are only fifty females; the numbers being, at the 1841 census, 87,298 males, and 43,558 females, of whom 36,358 were married persons. Therefore, it is supposed that if the whole unmarried population were now old enough, and wished to be married, out of every remaining hundred bachelors, not much more than forty could get wives, while for the unsuccessful sixty not a female would be left. This great disparity of females has not resulted from natural causes, for while the colonial births in 1840 were 2,119 males, and 2,114 females, the preceding five years show an equally fair proportion of male and

female births : but it is referable to an unequal emigration and transportation of females compared with males. It is much to be desired, since transportation to New South Wales was discontinued in 1840, and with it the frightful disparity of something less than twenty females to a hundred males, that the attention of those who interest themselves in colonial emigration will be drawn to the benefit that New South Wales would derive from a steady introduction from time to time of female emigrants, until the sexes are at least more fairly balanced than at present ; for it is evident that such a disparity as fifty females to a hundred males must be highly prejudicial to the moral welfare of the community.

The bond or convict population of the colony in 1841, and which was included in the census of that year, amounted to 26,977 ; this number comprised, first, 6,159 ticket-of-leave-holders, who, for good behaviour, had their sentence remitted, in so far that they were allowed to live, work, or trade, in whatever way they chose, receiving all profits arising from their labour and appropriating them as they thought fit, so long as they conducted themselves properly, and did not attempt to leave the colony. Secondly, 7,639 persons who from bad behaviour or other causes were retained in government employment ; and thirdly, 13,181 persons who being assigned as convict servants to settlers, previous to 1841, (in which year assignment and transportation to the colony ceased) were allowed to remain in such private service, until the period of their respective sentences

either terminated, or they from good behaviour became subjects for indulgence and remission of punishment; and now that transportation to New South Wales has entirely ceased, the convicts will before long form but an insignificant fraction of the general population of the colony, always assuming that the tide of emigration which appeared so strongly to have set in for New South Wales two years ago, keep steady, and the increase of colonial births progress in the same ratio it has done of late years.

It is sincerely to be hoped that the withdrawal of convicts from New South Wales, will eventually be attended with much moral benefit to the community, while it cannot be denied, that the physical improvements, and rapid progress made by the colony, are to be attributed to the convict population, which supplied men of enterprize with labour without hire. These convicts not only advanced the interests of the colony, but many of them became, through perseverance, sobriety, and steadiness, possessors of large fortunes, and highly useful members of society; the worst even were of use to the colony, for although heavily chained they were employed in making roads in the interior, and the colonist, with whatever moral repugnance he may now look upon the man in chains, dressed in the yellow and grey livery of the doubly convicted felon, must confess, that if it had not been for these hardened villains, the pasture lands of the interior would never have been grazed over.

The system which the colonial government in-

variably followed in its management of convicts, seemed to me one of humanity and wisdom, offering to the criminal who was capable of being reformed, the opportunity of obtaining as good, and in most cases a higher standing than he had ever held in the mother country, and punishing with never more than due severity the hardened criminal. The system the government pursued was, on the arrival of a convict ship, to reserve for the public service, as many of the convict labourers, mechanics, or others, as it required, and to assign the rest to settlers, on proper applications transmitted to the convict office ; but those settlers who either returned their assigned servants to government, without first endeavouring to reform them, or who were known to treat their men with inhumanity (stinting them either in food or clothing) or infringed the code of regulations which so amply protected the convict servants, had not only their applications disregarded, but were deprived of any convicts that might formerly have been assigned to them. The assigned convicts' life was not an unhappy one, and when well treated, they were most useful to their masters ; at least mine were so, and I had seven men assigned to me in 1840, some of whom had committed burglaries of a very atrocious kind, and one of them had committed murder, but on account of some alleviating circumstances, got off with transportation. These men lived amicably, and contentedly with each other, and were obedient, hard-working, and civil in their demeanour ; indeed so well did they behave, that during more

than four years that they were with me, I never had occasion to punish but one of them; and although they had frequent opportunities of committing or conniving at thefts, I never was robbed but once, and then through their intervention I had every thing restored to me. I have, consequently, no reason to speak otherwise than well of the convict servant; and as I have also employed immigrants, I do not in ignorance draw a comparison between them, perhaps in favour of the convict servant—who, for hard work, faithfulness, and obedience to orders, I would, in many instances, prefer to the Australian immigrants. Convicts, however, must be treated with firmness; and punishment, when merited, must be visited upon them with an unsparing hand. At the same time, it must always be remembered that they are men, and should be treated as such. This is the only plan I adopted, and it proved, at least so far as I saw, an efficacious one.

After the convict servant had served four or five years, and if his conduct had been exemplary, he became a ticket-of-leave-holder; and, on the ticket being held for a few years, the holder was entitled to a “conditional pardon,” which, while it confined him to the colony, could not be taken from him at the will of the colonial executive. It was during these two stages that fortunes, now immense, were commenced by the frugal, sober, and industrious. And who can say, that had it not been for the rewards and indulgences judiciously held out, the present emancipists, now often useful members of the Aus-

tralian community, would not again have returned to their crimes.

Convict servants who misbehaved were brought up before the neighbouring bench of magistrates, and, on their crimes being proved, were sentenced to receive fifty or a hundred lashes, if their offences were slight; but if their guilt was of a more flagrant character, they were sentenced to be worked in chains in the road gangs, for spaces of time proportioned to the magnitude of their offence.

Female convicts were assigned immediately on their landing, as house servants, to respectable married applicants: they were also entitled to the indulgence of "tickets-of-leave" and "conditional pardons;" but among women "*c'est le premier pas qui coute*," seems to be very apposite,—it is at least so among the female convicts of Australia; and few, if any of them, have either improved in morality, or have been found deserving of the slightest indulgence. On conviction of misdemeanours, female convicts were removed from private service, and placed in confinement in the Paramatta Factory, where they were, and still are, kept employed in manufacturing a cloth which, although of a coarse description, is now almost universally worn in the interior.

Wealth, all-powerful as it is, has not been able hitherto to efface a very strong prejudice, and line of demarcation, which has all along been observed by the emigrant settlers towards the emancipists and their descendants. The rich emancipist, although a shrewd man, is perfectly illiterate, and his children,

who are brought up, for the most part, to regard knowledge of cattle, sheep, and horses, together with sharpness in making a bargain, as the grand desideratum, seem to have a great contempt for wisdom acquired through the medium of books, and to regard wealth as the standard by which mankind are alone to be valued. There is, however, a great change for the better in this respect, among the *younger scions* of this not very noble stock; which, although greatly attributable to the improvements made within the last twelve years in the Australian schools, has been in some part caused by the late influx of immigrants, capital, and respectability.

The emancipist, with his wife, daughters, and sons, dressed in the height of fashion, or rather I should say finery, are to be seen in all parts of the colony, lolling, not too gracefully, in their gay carriages, drawn by well bred and spirited horses;—but who is without vanity? The same emancipist will, however, besides private charity, be among the first and greatest contributors to a new church; and his gaudily dressed daughters will, I do not doubt, sympathize with the distresses of the unfortunate, and have all the finer feelings quite as sensitive as other women; still they are atrociously fond of bright colours, and their hands are somewhat of the coarsest. The son, certainly not the best of the family, has his redeeming qualities; he is at any rate a good judge of horses, never riding any but those of the first calibre. He is quite at home, too, in the treat-

ment of sheep and cattle, and is on horseback, actively employed in some business relative to his stock, at the dawn of day. It is true, he "swears a trifle," and uses most undrawing-room-like language. His waistcoat is covered with huge chains; and his coarse, and not too clean fingers, are bedizened with numerous rings. A cigar, or pipe, is his favourite, and almost constant companion. He is a great supporter of races, subscribing liberally to them; runs good horses, and freely, but judiciously, gives and takes the odds. It would be doing an injustice to some of the emancipists and their descendants if I neglected to say, that in improving the breeds of sheep, cattle, and horses, by importing from the mother country stock of the best and most expensive kinds, they are second to no class of men in the colony, and that some of them deserve to be ranked among the more respectable classes of the Australian community.

According to the census of 1841, which was the first census taken in Australia that distinguished the emigrants from those born in the colony, and which classed the occupations of the inhabitants, it appears that there were in that year 29,445 males and females born in the colony, and 52,903 male and female immigrants; and that the occupation of the whole population, free and bond, was as follows: — landed proprietors, merchants, bankers, and professional persons, 4,477; shopkeepers and other retail dealers, 1,774; mechanics and artificers, 10,715; shepherds, stockmen, and farm servants,

29,618; domestic servants, 9,825: all other persons not included in these classes are convicts in Government employment, women and children.

Of the 52,903 emigrants, I have no means at hand of ascertaining the exact number that have come out to the colony, having obtained their passages at the expense of the revenue derived from the sale of the Government lands in New South Wales; but from the immense sum expended in emigration, the number of Government officers and functionaries, of settlers and farmers, of professional persons, merchants, shopkeepers, and others, that the census of 1841 enumerates, together with my knowledge that many who arrived in the colony with a few hundred pounds are now occupying menial situations, I am inclined to believe that the class of emigrants who have come out to New South Wales at the expense of the colonial land-fund exceeds 40,000.

Many pamphlets have been written as to the passage, food, and the care that is generally paid in the emigrant ships to the comforts of those emigrants who obtain free passages; and from what I myself have seen, I believe that although there are some very glaring exceptions, the labourers and mechanics, who form the male part of this class of emigrants, and the servant-maids, milliners, and others of which the female part is composed, have generally nothing to complain of in the treatment they receive while on board. These emigrants are classed, put in messes of five or six, according as the surgeon superintendent may arrange, and are well fed,

getting always a fixed and sufficient quantity of bread, meat, coffee, tea, sugar, and water, with raisins, rice, and other things, which must be luxuries to many of them, twice a week. The passage, which is long, and monotonous, affords ample time and occasion for the display of quarrelsome and discontented dispositions; and as on board an emigrant ship, one malignant spirit is sufficient to breed disturbance among hundreds, it is not to be wondered at if on their arrival in Sydney, a pretty general bad feeling prevails throughout the emigrant ships.

So far as I can judge, any statement which would induce mechanics to emigrate to New South Wales at the present time, ought not to be listened to; for although good wages are given to first-rate workmen,—carpenters, cabinet-makers, coach-makers, painters and glaziers, saddlers and harness-makers, and stone-masons, receiving as much as 1*l.* 12*s.* per week, and blacksmiths, bakers, butchers, bricklayers, shoemakers, coopers, tinsmiths, and tanners obtain on the average weekly wages of 1*l.* 5*s.*,—yet employment for mechanics generally is excessively scarce.

So scarce was employment for such individuals in the commencement of 1844, that there were not less than 400 mechanics out of employment in Sydney alone; and it is more than probable, from the immense change which the whole colony has undergone within the last four years in its monetary affairs, that there will be, for a considerable time to come, a comparative cessation in the erection of private buildings, and in the demand for the more

ornamental kinds of furniture ; consequently a further introduction at present of mechanics would have the effect of making the supply of mechanical labour far exceed the demand. A few mechanics within the last two years left the colony, and proceeded to South America, where I am told they have been even less fortunate than in New South Wales, not being able to obtain employment of any kind, whereas employment as shepherds and farm servants was always open to them in the colony. Independently of the manifest injustice which mechanics have sustained by being induced to emigrate in such a wholesale way, the colony itself suffered much by being overstocked with a class of persons that it did not want ; and the colonists think they have reason to be discontented, for the proceeds of the sale of lands in the colony during the last six years, amounting in all to 1,000,000*l.* sterling, had been expended in the introduction of immigrants from the mother country, without proper regard being paid to the description of immigrants that New South Wales was most in need of.

As pastoral and agricultural labour constitutes the medium through which colonial enterprize for a considerable time will be carried on, it follows that shepherds and farm servants are the class of labourers most adapted to the colony ; and while there can be no doubt that the supply of this class is far from being sufficient to the present demand, the almost geometrical proportion in which sheep increase in the colony, must tend to augment the

demand for such labour to an annual increase of at least twenty-five per cent. The wages, however, of 1841 and 1842, which rose suddenly, on the stoppage of the assignment system, to 35*l.* and 40*l.* per annum, with full rations for shepherds and farm servants, will never again be given in the colony; for two years' experience has proved to the flock-masters, that the profits of grazing will not enable them to pay wages at such a rate, and the sad resource of slaughtering sheep and cattle, and boiling them down for tallow, which was last year so generally adopted by the settlers, will be always resorted to when labour is so scarce and high priced as to render the increase of sheep and cattle unprofitable to the stockholder. The labourer emigrating to New South Wales must, therefore, abjure the delusion under which many come out, that he has only to ask what wages he chooses, with the certainty of getting them.

However, there can be little doubt that 5,000 labourers annually emigrating to New South Wales would find immediate employment, provided that they were willing to take, as single men, 12*l.* per annum, with lodging, fuel, candles, and a weekly ration of 10 lbs. of meat and 10 lbs. of flour, and a proportionate allowance of tea, sugar, and tobacco.

Newly married couples, again, when the man would act as a shepherd, and his wife as hut-keeper, must be content with wages and rations for each, similar to those of the single man; and as their clothes would not cost, even if they were extrava-

gant, more than 3*l.* per annum, each immigrant would have 9*l.* to lay by yearly, or to invest in stock, which, if they were deserving of it, their masters would keep for them free of charge. It is incredible with what rapid strides thrifty and hard-working labourers ascend the ladder in Australia. In a few years their stock of cattle or sheep has increased to an astonishing number, and they find themselves in a position to commence business on their own account, and in their turn, again, become employers of labour. With others, however, and by far the greater number, whether, as of old, their wages were 40*l.* a year, or as at present, when the average is not upwards of 16*l.*, money has no attraction beyond the quantity of rum it can obtain; and I sincerely believe, that the publicans are much more displeased, and grumble more at the reduction of wages, than the labourers themselves. Although it would be impolitic to make any invidious comparison between the English and Irish immigrants, it would be unfair to the English immigrant to pass unnoticed his superiority to the Patlander, who is generally esteemed so comparatively unsuitable that an immigrant ship from Ireland is less anxiously looked forward to, and causes less interest, than one from England or Scotland. This observation of course only applies to the Irish immigrant labourer, and to him it would be an injustice if I were not to say that there are many Irishmen who, originally labourers in the colony, are now employers of labour: in fact, the remark does not personally go farther than this, that I would

not hire an Irishman in New South Wales when I could get, even at a little higher wages, either an Englishman or Scotchman of the same experience. The labourers from the English and Scotch farming counties are those most prized in the colony, yet any man or lad, who will be obedient to his master's orders, and is not excessively dull, will in six months become an efficient shepherd.

The select committee of the Legislative Council appointed, on the 18th August, 1843, to take into consideration the necessity and means for reviving immigration, and for ensuring an adequate and continuous introduction of shepherds and agricultural servants, after a most elaborate inquiry, reported, among other matters, that they were unanimously of opinion that the supply of shepherds and agricultural labour was inadequate to the wants of the colony, and that it was indispensable to its future prosperity that a periodical supply from the mother country should be introduced. They further reported, that four thousand shepherds and farm servants introduced annually into the colony, would readily find employment at rates of wages of from 10*l.* to 12*l.* per annum, with lodgings, fuel, and full rations of meat, bread, tea, and sugar, and that a much greater number would not fail to be employed, although perhaps at reduced wages. The committee laid much stress on the injudicious and profuse manner in which artisans had been introduced into the colony, and animadverted very strongly on the injustice done to the colony in obliging it to pay

for the introduction of a class of persons it did not require, and who were neither useful to the colony as producers or consumers.

The report of the Immigration Committee, which, in so far at least as regards the present supply and demand for labour, only echoes the opinion of every stockholder in the colony, opposes the introduction of married persons with young families, a class which so far as the future population of the country is concerned, would be all important. The committee did not seem to have occupied themselves with the advantages that the morals of the colony would derive from a plentiful and well-regulated introduction of single female immigrants from the agricultural districts of the mother country: there is, perhaps, a prejudice in the minds of some to the introduction of single females, arising from the lax morals of many of the single women who have immigrated; but it is uncharitable to conclude that because the over-populated towns of England and Ireland have sent to the Australian shores persons frequently of dissolute characters, that a well-regulated immigration of females from the agricultural districts, would be attended with the like results.

In all the well-ordered establishments in the colony, there are few duties which a woman is not as capable of performing as a man, and there can be no doubt that one of the greatest moral evils in New South Wales, is the small proportion of women, as compared with the number of men. No one can journey far in the "bush" without perceiving that wherever

a woman, unless of a very abandoned character, is to be met, all around bears a more refined, or perhaps the better phrase would be, less savage aspect; indeed the traveller can always tell, when within a few hundred yards of the shepherd's hut, whether a woman is there, by the garden, the general look of comfort, and the indescribable cleanliness and neatness for which we look in vain in those localities where the "lords of the creation" alone reside. The assize calendars testify to the heinous nature of the crimes committed in the places where women are most scarce.

CHAPTER IV.

Immigrants of capital — Professions — Merchants — Shopkeepers —
Settlers—Sheep-farming — Its profits — High price of labour—
Insolvents—Horned cattle—Horse stock — Persons adapted for
settlers.

It would be absurd to suppose that emigration to a colony so far distant as New South Wales is from England, is dictated more by motives of choice than necessity, and any man in receipt of a comfortable income would stultify himself who journeyed 16,000 miles to a colony of fifty years' standing, for the purpose of taking up his abode, while the whole of Europe, with its various climes, luxuries, and comforts, were within his reach. The man of moderate independence, who can live at home, and educate his children in the manner in which all English gentlemen wish to do, would be wrong, I think, if he emigrated to any colony; and if such a person were to go to New South Wales, he would soon become discontented, for he would be more sensitive than others to the great difference that exists between a

new colony, (where all who have any hope of succeeding actively employ themselves in some colonial business,) and the advanced and highly civilized country which he had left. And, worse than all, he would find, if he did not before long acquire a sounder judgment than the act of emigration evinced, that the riches he brought out with him would fast pass from him. Neither should any Utopian dreams lead those who, from vice, idleness, or crime, failed to succeed at home to expect that, in New South Wales, they will be more fortunate, unless fully determined to change their way of life, and bring all their energies into play; for without activity, either moral or physical, no one can now succeed in New South Wales.

Persons of the more refined class best adapted for colonists are those who, enjoying health, activity, and youth, have capitals averaging from 1,000*l.* to 10,000*l.* sterling; and professional persons possessed of small capitals, and of abilities which, unappreciated at home, may pass in small communities as something above the common; and judging from the standing in society, and from the apparent affluence of many of the members of the three learned professions, I have but little doubt that the respectable British immigrant at the present moment, whether belonging to the clerical, legal, or medical profession, would succeed.

The interior of the colony affords an ample field for young clerical men, who have zeal enough to penetrate into the bush, and exert themselves in the dissemination of Christian knowledge. Such men are much esteemed among the settlers, at whose stations,

however remote, they will always find a kind and welcome reception, besides every assistance and facility that may be required for furthering the religious instruction of the shepherds and other servants employed on the stations, so long as these instructions do not interfere with the necessary duties of the establishment. All hopes of instructing the aborigines in Christian knowledge have been long since abandoned, and the young divine will have to confine himself exclusively to evangelizing men of his own colour. A horse and valise, with a few shirts and a bible, are all the worldly goods he requires; the squatter's cottage or hut will, with all it possesses, be open to him, and for as long a period as he chooses; and above all, if well educated, and not too ascetic, he will require neither money nor scrip; all will respect him, and, if I may be permitted to regard the matter in a worldly point of view, I may add my conviction, that in a short time such a person would accumulate a pretty large nest egg; and who will deny that the labourer is worthy of his hire?

The towns, of course, are the only places for persons of the legal profession, and I do not think that to succeed in this line, particularly as barristers, is nearly so difficult as it has been represented; young barristers who cannot have had much experience, and whose talents are, I do not suppose, greatly above mediocrity, apparently are much employed, and must be realizing very comfortable fortunes. Attorneys are certainly very numerous, still I think men of good character and fair abilities would, after becoming well ac-

quainted with the forms of the courts, and, what is of more consequence to the colonial practitioner, with the habits of the people, acquire at least business enough to keep themselves fully employed; and if, in course of time, they established reputations for honesty, zeal, and talent, business of a remunerating kind would pour in upon them. It would be a calumny to say that the attorneys in New South Wales, as a body, are not respectable; but perhaps it is not uncharitable to state, that there are among them many sharp practitioners whom men of more English principle would soon supersede.

Many medical men have succeeded well both in the bush and in the towns, and have realized very independent fortunes. The towns, I believe, are now over supplied with medical men; but in this profession, more perhaps than in any other, the man of good moral character, and talent, is almost certain of succeeding, and of supplanting those whose conduct can less bear close inspection. A medical man combining cheap farming, with his profession, in any of the well populated districts, so long as he is economical, and does not allow the one duty to infringe too much on the other, has every chance of succeeding.

The merchants are at the present time a very different body of men, with regard to the outward appearance of wealth, from what they were up to the close of 1841. Among the principal mercantile houses of that year, but very few remain now solvent; the carriages, in which they formerly rolled,

are now converted into unpretending hackney-coaches; their well-fed butlers, and smart livery servants, are changed into shepherds; their plate has long since passed through the auctioneer's crucible; their almost gorgeous mansions are stripped of their furniture, and they themselves walk about discontented and morose. A few, perhaps, of stronger minds, benefiting by their misfortunes, and having gained experience, are again trying gradually to ascend the height from which they fell. There was, however, another class, calling themselves merchants, but I am glad to say they were few, who, living in great extravagance previously to 1841, took advantage of the Colonial Insolvent Act and became bankrupt; but, unlike most ruined men, they did not abate one iota of their former extravagance; their houses, carriages, and servants remained the same; their wives, somehow or other, suddenly became heiresses, in their own right; all their kith and kin had legacies left them; while all those who were connected with them in business matters, if honest, were left penniless. How these men have escaped punishment is an enigma to many, as there can be no doubt that they had all the attributes of thorough-paced swindlers—adventurers generally at the onset. The day after they proclaimed themselves bankrupts saw them and their families as rich, as the most successful honest career could have made them. For the credit of Australia, I am glad to say that the number of these swindlers is few, and that by far

the greater part of the embarrassed colonists gave up every shilling they had to their creditors.

Extravagance, a crime prevalent in every class of the Australian community, might have assisted in causing the ruin of the merchants; but the *coup de grace* was given by a sudden and immense depreciation on the English market in the price of wool and oil,—commodities in which the Australian merchant dealt very largely. Besides this, another very powerful cause in expediting the ruin of some of the merchants was a land mania, which in 1839 seized most classes of the community, and which unfortunately the banks first fostered by indiscriminate and wholesale discounts; but the more than folly of the land mania was not felt until the banks, two years afterwards, apparently as indiscriminately as suddenly, called in their debts. The result was, that the lands which had been wildly purchased were as recklessly thrown into the market, and, it would seem, for the first time narrowly scrutinised, and found to be of comparatively little value. The mad speculators' eyes were opened—the dream had passed,—and the land which hard cash and borrowed money had purchased with avidity at prices above 1*l.* per acre proved to be unsaleable at half a crown. Other causes, highly prejudicial to the general welfare of the inhabitants, although not perhaps directly connected with the business of the merchants, rushed at the same time, like a destroying angel, upon the colonists, and assisted not a little in their destruction.

In spite, however, of these many failures, the

merchants who confine themselves strictly and honestly to the duties of consignees, and have good mercantile connections in other countries, are sure of succeeding. A friend of mine assured me that his profits of commission as a consignee agent amounted not unfrequently to 2,000*l.* and 3,000*l.* per annum, while the consigner's property had very often sold in the colony at 25*l.* per cent. advance on the invoice prices. Consignments of goods, judiciously made to persons of integrity, would, at the present time, be highly remunerating to the consigner as well as to the consignee, more particularly as confidence in the Australian colonies has latterly been much shaken; and unless that confidence is soon restored, English goods will become before long excessively scarce and dear.

There are decidedly too many shopkeepers in the colony, in proportion to the number of inhabitants; and I do not think that many of them have made fortunes, if the publicans are excepted. Some of this latter class, what with private distilleries, adulteration of spirits, usurious pawnbroking, and chalking double against their drunken customers, have accumulated much money; and only those who have been in New South Wales can imagine in what a very short time persons perfectly uneducated amass fortunes as Australian publicans. It would be superfluous to say, that there are many exceptions, and I do not doubt that honesty and industry meet their reward in this class as in others.

The settlers and squatters are, for the most part

persons who have emigrated to the colony with capitals varying from £1,000 to £10,000. These form the most respectable portion of the Australian community, and are, besides, the greatest producers and consumers, as from their enterprise, money, and labour, all colonial produce flows; and in supplying their establishments most of the imports are consumed. Of late years the settlers have much improved, and this class of the Australian community consists of cadets of respectable families, with patrimonies of £4,000 or £5,000,—the most dangerous sum a young man can have; for while it often deters him from engaging at an early age in some active employment at home, it is quite insufficient to support him in idleness;—of younger sons, who, either from deficiency in talent, interest, or other cause, were obliged to give up their professions, or unremunerating employment, and whose sires gave them a few thousand or hundred pounds to go a wool-gathering;—of young Oxonians, Cantabs, military and naval officers, whose sanguine temperaments induced them to prefer employing their energies in a country where enterprise and activity had, in many instances, been so well rewarded; and of respectable families of moderate capital, the heads of which, not being engaged in any business or profession at home, had no means of properly providing for the settlement of their children, and had no hope of their small incomes increasing at any future time if they remained in Great Britain. Is it to be wondered at that among such a motley crew,—all with money in their

pockets, and most of them without knowledge of the world, and taking all that glittered for gold,—many have drawn blanks in the great lottery of emigration.

The settlers, properly speaking, are those who, either by purchases or grants, are possessed of landed property within the boundary; and the squatters those who live and depasture their sheep and cattle outside the boundary. By the boundary is meant a line that separates the land already surveyed and divided into counties, and which the colonial government have either sold or are preparing to sell, from the lands in the interior, called in the colony “bush,” which are not surveyed, and which the Government do not as yet offer for sale, but allow, on payment of an annual license fee or rent, the sheep and cattle of the squatter to graze over. As, however, of late years, all the wealthier settlers have occupied, besides their private properties, squatting lands for the purposes of grazing their herds and flocks, while most capitalists who have lately emigrated confine themselves to lands outside the boundary, any invidious distinction that may have formerly existed between the settlers and squatters has quite disappeared; and at the present time all flock-masters, whether within or without the boundary, are denominated throughout the colony, settlers.

Settlers who reside on their grants or purchases have, according to their means, built of free-stone, brick, or weather-boards, cottages and houses, with from four to eighteen and twenty rooms in them. The richer settlers have also very superior

stone and brick out-buildings, coach-houses, and stables; but in most instances buildings of this description are made of weather-boards or slabs. In the immediate vicinity of these buildings there are orchards, gardens, and cultivated fields. Naturally clear lands, of superior quality, often extending for many hundreds of acres, with not more than a dozen trees on them, form a very prominent feature in the grants or purchases of the settlers; and this gives to such enclosures the appearance of large and beautiful parks, not unlike those of England.

Many settlers have, within the last few years, occupied themselves in planting vineyards, and are annually increasing them according to their means. At the commencement of 1844, there were 500 acres of vines in cultivation, from which 30,000 gallons of wine, and 750 gallons of brandy, were made; but as many of the vines had been recently planted, and were not in full bearing, this return forms no criterion of the produce of the Australian vine. A knowledge of the most favourable sites, of the grapes best adapted for each peculiar soil and climate, and of the peculiarity in the fermentation and manufacture of wine, can only be acquired by experience and observation; nevertheless, as many persons are at present interesting themselves in the growth of colonial wine, while the climate is as good, if not better adapted than any other, for the production of grapes of all kinds, it is possible that settlers may, in a few years, derive as much profit from their vineyards as they ever did from sheep-farming. Indeed,

it has been proved that, after the fourth year, an acre of vines in the colony has produced as much as 500 gallons of wine.

The settlers who farm their lands do not generally grow more wheat or corn than is required for the maintenance of their sheep and cattle establishments. The fields are seldom, if ever, manured, and a rotation of crops is not considered of any use; indeed, it would be ruinous to the farmer to cultivate his grounds in a more scientific and expensive manner, as for a series of years there may be a supply of wheat in the colony far exceeding the demand; and all of a sudden a drought may occur, causing, perhaps for two years, a universal failure in the crops. The weavel, which is very prevalent throughout the colony, has hitherto prevented settlers from storing their wheat; but the building of siloes, which has been introduced within the last two or three years, will, when universally adopted, be of the greatest use, not only to the colonial farmer, but to the community at large.

An idea may be formed of the fluctuating prices obtained by the farmer, from the following facts:— In 1838, wheat sold at 2*l.* the bushel, and oaten hay at 40*l.* a ton; at the close of 1844, wheat with difficulty realized 2*s.* 6*d.* the bushel, and oaten hay 1*l.* 5*s.* a ton. The average price of wheat from 1839 to 1844 was 4*s.* the bushel.

At the commencement of 1844, there were within the boundaries 145,653 acres of land laid down in wheat, maize, barley, oaten hay, and tobacco: of

this 78,000 acres were wheat, which produced 1,000,225 bushels; and this, as the population stood in 1841, would give 1 lb. and a considerable fraction of flour to each man, woman, and child, per day.

The settlers outside the boundary do not employ much money in buildings or cultivation; they live, in most instances, in slab huts, of two or three rooms, with walls unplastered, and floors, &c. made of hard clay. These huts are covered either with bark or thatch. If more extravagant, or married, they have at best a weather-board and thatched cottage, divided into a few rooms on the ground floor, with walls, ceilings, and floors made of deals not too closely joined together; while very simple verandahs, facing the south, complete the dwellings of those who often own as many as 10,000 sheep. The out-buildings, such as huts for shepherds and other servants, wool sheds, and stables, are of the most rude kind, and do not cost in building more than a few pounds.

Vegetable gardens of about half an acre, fenced in with a close paling of six feet high to protect them from the encroachments of sheep and cattle, are frequent; but cultivated fields outside the boundaries are rarely, if ever to be met with. This almost savage order of things arises neither from poverty nor niggardliness of disposition, but from the knowledge that stations beyond the boundary may, at a moment's notice, and without reason assigned, be taken from the settlers by the colonial government, who never allow one farthing of remuneration

for improvements of any kind. I do not mean to say that this arbitrary power has been ever improperly used, but the mere fact that such a power is held by one individual is sufficient to deter the settlers from investing money in buildings or other improvements.

Sheep-farming, which now occupies the capital and labour of so great a proportion of the Australian community, was introduced into the colony about the beginning of the present century, although not generally adopted until a much more recent period. A few sheep accidentally carried out from England, and landed in the colony, having crossed with the few hairy and coarse-woolled sheep of the Cape and of India (which had been introduced merely for the sake of their carcass), produced sheep with fleeces so very fine, that it was immediately concluded that there was something in the Australian climate peculiarly favourable to the growth of wool. On this assumption, some specimens of the Merino breed of sheep were introduced, and distributed amongst the colonists, and so fast have these sheep increased, and so favourable is the Australian climate to the culture of wool, that on the 1st of January, 1844, there were 5,055,337 good-woolled sheep in the colony, and in the year 1843 the export of wool amounted to 12,704,899 lbs. Now, supposing the free population to have increased to 130,000 persons, and the price of the 1843 wool to have realized only 1s. the pound, the exports of wool alone that year would average about 5*l.* to each person in the colony; whereas

I believe that the whole annual exports, produce, and manufactures of the United Kingdom, do not exceed 2*l.* 10*s.* per head.

Various attempts have been made to show the certain profits derivable from the investment of capital in sheep-farming in New South Wales, but all such calculations must be fallacious so long as the price of wool fluctuates between 2*s.* 6*d.* and 1*s.* per pound, while the price of labour varies 400 per cent. within the space of two years, and the settlers hold their stations on uncertain tenures. Estimates, however, of the progressive increase of sheep may be made with great accuracy; and it is speaking within bounds to say, that the settler who commences sheep-farming with 2,000 ewes will, on the fourth lambing, have 5,000 males and 3,000 females, or a total of 8,000 sheep. This estimate only allows an annual increase of eighty per cent., with which most settlers would be dissatisfied; it allows also as much as six per cent. for annual losses, which is a per-centage far more than sufficient to cover all general casualties. Settlers in most instances take only one lambing annually from their ewes, although two lambings are sometimes taken; but this latter practice greatly impairs the health and size of the sheep.

The tales which reached home of the immense wealth amassed in sheep-farming in New South Wales, though now generally believed to be traps set to catch the unwary, were more founded upon truth than late events would at the first glance lead one to believe. Six years' colonial experience has

proved to me, that during the assignment system sheep-farming was as certain and speedy a way of realizing a fortune, as sheep-farming in 1841 was an unprofitable investment of capital and labour.

In all properly conducted sheep establishments, the complement of men never exceeds two to each thousand sheep, and as the men employed in taking care of sheep were, previously to 1841, assigned convicts, and did not cost the sheep-farmer one shilling beyond their rations and clothing, and as all the other duties connected with sheep establishments were also performed by convicts, while the price of wool was generally as high as 2s. the lb. it is not to be wondered at that the sheep-farmers' account, during the convict system, for wool alone, exhibits such favourable results:—

1,000 fleeces of 2½ lbs. each sold at			
2s. per lb.	£250	0	0
Clothing and rations for two			
Government men at 15l.			
each	£30	0	0
Disbursements for shearing,			
wool-packing, and washing			
1,000 fleeces	14	0	0
Assessment on 1,000 sheep,			
carriage, commission, &c.	6	0	0
		50	0 0
Income derived from 1,000 sheep . .	£200	0	0

Any sales of fat wethers, or other sheep, were additions to this income; but as the prices of sheep,

even during the convict labour, were continually fluctuating, I can form no accurate opinion as to the general results of such sales; the minimum, however, may be taken with safety at 1*l.* per head.

The sudden stoppage of the assignment system in 1841 was very injurious to the colony, and took place at a time most unfavourable to the settler, for wool had fallen to its lowest, and free labour was excessively scarce and dear. Shepherds then demanded, and readily got, wages of 30*l.* and 40*l.* per annum, with full rations (indeed so scarce had labour become, that wages much beyond these were frequently offered and refused), wool at the same time fell to 1*s.* the pound; and the position of the sheep-farmers wore, consequently, a very different aspect from what it assumed during the convict system. The wool account in 1841 stood:—

1,000 fleeces of 2½ lbs. each sold at			
1 <i>s.</i> per lb.	£125	0	0
Wages for two men at 35 <i>l.</i>			
each	£70	0	0
Ration for do. at 12 <i>l.</i> each .	24	0	0
Disbursements for shearing,			
washing, & wool-packing			
1,000 fleeces	14	0	0
Assessment on 1,000 sheep,			
carriage of wool, commis-			
sion, &c. &c.	6	0	0
		114	0 0
Income from 1,000 sheep	£11	0	0

The stockholders were not, in 1841, aware of the returns and value of the tallow and skins that resulted from slaughtering and boiling down sheep; added to which, purchasers of live stock were nowhere to be met; for a very general belief existed in the colony that sheep-farming, as an investment of capital, was a very losing concern. The butchers' shambles have been filled with fat stock at prices that frequently did not pay the expenses of transmitting the sheep and cattle to Sydney. The settler finding the market for the increase of his flocks and herds thus closed, and dreading that labour would become dearer, was, in 1841, as desirous of curtailing the numbers of his live stock as formerly he had been anxious to increase them, and, as the only means for preventing the dreaded augmentation, most flockmasters did not allow their ewes to increase, while a lingering hope that wool would again rise alone hindered them from destroying the flocks that had formerly been such a source of wealth.

Wool, at the end of 1844, was still selling at low prices in Sydney, and only brought a small fraction more than 1s. the pound; but the price of labour was much reduced, and the average rate of wages did not exceed 15*l.* per annum, with full rations, for shepherds and hutkeepers; consequently the sheep-farmers' account, in 1844, for wool was again looking up, and the wool, besides covering all expenses, would return some interest on the original outlay.

1,000 fleeces at $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. each, say at			
1s. per lb.	£125	0	0
Wages for two men at 15l.			
each	£30	0	0
Rations for ditto at 12l.			
each	24	0	0
Disbursement for shearing,			
&c.	14	0	0
Assessment on 1,000			
sheep, carriage of wool,			
commission charges, &c.	6	0	0
		74	0 0
Income in 1844 from 1,000 sheep .	£51	0	0

Two years' experience has proved that the tallow and skin of a good sheep will amount to 6s. 1d.; therefore a fixed minimum standard has been given to sheep, and the sheep-farmer never can again be placed in a like position to that which he occupied in 1841, 1842, and the commencement of 1843; but it is to be hoped that boiling down sheep for their tallow will be seldom resorted to, and the stockholder knows well that when he boils down a sheep, he kills the hen that lays the golden egg.

The benefit that has arisen from the boiling down of sheep and cattle has hitherto been great, as this mode of disposing of the annual increase and fat stock has obviated in a great measure the difficulty arising from the disparity in the supply of labour

in comparison to what its demand would otherwise have been. Indeed, had the boiling-down system not been introduced, the supply of labour would have been so disproportionate to the quantity required, and the wages consequently so high, that in a few years there would either not have been a solvent settler in the whole colony, or immense herds of sheep and cattle would be running wild in the bush.

Should a well organized system of emigration be adopted, the colony will soon return to its former position as a money-making country, and sheep-farming can afford as well as most businesses, even taking the wool at 1s. the pound, to employ labourers at wages of 10*l.* and 12*l.*, with full rations, or without rations at 22*l.* per annum. At these rates the sheep-farmer may derive a very fair income from his flocks, and if wool should rise to 1s. 6*d.* the pound, an event more than probable, the stockholder must be an improvident or a gambling speculator if he does not realize a fortune, for while the income that will be derived from his wool will be considerable, the original capital invested in the sheep will be increasing and multiplying itself with the same rapidity that the sheep themselves do.

It is an extraordinary, and not very creditable fact, that, small as the Australian community is, fifteen hundred persons have gone through the insolvent court within four years, whose debts amounted in all to 3,000,000*l.*, on which the average dividend

paid was not so much as 1s. the pound. Now this circumstance in an old and properly organized country, whose resources were fully developed, would be a strong argument against its internal wealth; but I do not think it can be so applied with regard to New South Wales, where there must have been many circumstances and extraordinary influences (not the least prominent of which, perhaps, were great extravagances and speculation amounting to gambling) that could have ruined in so short a time men who had amassed such immense fortunes as sheep-farmers must have done during the convict system, and among whom, if one is to credit all that has been said, it was no uncommon saying, "we are getting disgustingly rich."

One can easily understand how men, who had purchased sheep partly upon credit, a few months previous to the cessation of the assignment system, or even shortly after (for the baneful effects of that stoppage were not generally diffused until many months after it took place), were ruined. These men paid 17. and 17. 5s. per head for their sheep, partly in cash, but by far the greatest portion in long dated bills, bearing ten and twelve per cent. interest. It mattered little, then, how provident, economical, and hard working they were, since it was impossible that any other destiny than that of the insolvent court could await them, for they had to pay this exorbitant interest on large sums from a business that, with the soundest management, did not much

more than clear its own expenses; and when the bills became due, all they had to meet them was an article that had fallen since they purchased it 1,000 per cent. Notwithstanding this, the settlers who purchased their sheep with cash, never giving bills or contracting debt, never entering into partnership with an individual or in any joint-stock company, had no fair reason for taking refuge in the insolvent court, and such a result can alone be imputed to improvidence, assuming that no great fatality, proceeding from natural causes, visited their flocks.

Many settlers have realized great wealth from horned cattle, and as they are managed at much less expense, and increase, although not so fast as sheep, very rapidly, there are many colonists who prefer cattle to sheep establishments. Great attention has been paid to the breeding of cattle; and notwithstanding that the present herds of Australia owe their origin to a few stray cattle brought out in some of the convict ships, numerous well-bred Durham, Ayrshire, Suffolk, and Hereford bulls, that have been imported during late years, have so greatly improved the breed, that the Australian herds can now almost bear comparison with the horned cattle of England; and oxen three and four years old, not stall or meadow fed, but fattening on the natural herbage of the colony, average nearly eight hundred weight. There are at present upwards of 1,000,000 of cattle in the colony, a great portion of which are of the Durham breed, and of this million of cattle, now running in the "bush" of Australia, there is scarcely

a single one which is not branded with the mark of its owner. The cattle proprietors take care to mark their stock in such a way as to know them from others.

The monetary embarrassment throughout the colony obliged settlers to try all means for obtaining funds, and, among other live stock, cattle of all descriptions and ages glutted the meat market to such an extent, that the prices obtained from the butchers for the prime oxen were totally unremunerating; but the boiling down of live stock for their tallow came, in 1843, very opportunely to the relief of the cattle-holder, and now the tallow and hide of a fat oxen varies in value, according to the size of the beast, from 2*l.* to 3*l.*

Salting beef was generally resorted to by the colonists in 1842, and most of the principal stockholders in the colony gave it their attention; but, unfortunately, the meat cured in that year has acquired a very unfavourable character in England. Nevertheless, it is notorious in the South Seas that Australian-cured meat, used by the colonial shipping, is much superior to English salt meat; and the natural inference is, that while there can be no inferiority in the beef itself, there exists some peculiarity, at present undiscovered, or not generally known, in the ingredients required for salting meat that is to pass through the torrid zone. When the process of salting meat for exportation to the northern countries is well understood, fat oxen will realize 7*l.* per head, after paying all the expenses of salting,

shipping, commissions on sale, and other charges. Under these circumstances, the grazier's position will be second to none in the colony; for a herd of 1,000 cattle can be managed, even when wages are as high as 20*l.* for 100*l.* per annum; and such a herd will, in good stations, return upwards of 100 fat oxen annually.

The horse-stock of New South Wales is considered not to be under 100,000, although the returns of last year only gave 62,017 horses. A horse, similar to one which in 1839 would have readily sold for 60*l.*, at the close of 1844 would not realise 8*l.* The panic which followed 1841 may be said to have given the death-blow to horse-stock; for, as most of the colonists at that time needed money, the majority hastened to the market with their property, and among other stock, horses were offered for sale by hundreds; the result was, that it became apparent to all that the supply of horses far exceeded the colonial demand, and that there was scarcely a settler in the colony who was not more or less a breeder of horses. Unlike sheep and cattle, no legitimate market out of the colony has hitherto been found for Australian horses; and until one be discovered, horse-stock will prove to be an encumbrance rather than a profit to the settler. It has been said that India offers a remunerating market for Australian horse-stock, but there are at present so many conflicting opinions with regard to this statement, that one is at a loss how to decide.

The original horse-stock of the colony was a cross

between the South American and Arab horses; but the present stock is of the first order, an excellence attributable to the influence of the climate, combined with the almost lavish cost at which the purest blood from some of the first racing stables in England has been introduced. The attention of the stockholders, however, has not been directed exclusively to horses whose sires and dams have been celebrated on the turf, for superior specimens of the hunter, roadster, carriage, dray, and Clydesdale horses, which are to be seen in many parts of the colony, are evidences of the importation of many different kinds of English stallions. The chief attribute of the Australian horse is the immense and continuous work of which he is capable, whether in the collar or saddle, upon green food, and that, as every "bushman" can testify, often of the most stunted growth, and in places where the animal would take a week to fill himself.

Emigrants of capital now proceeding to New South Wales have a great advantage over those who arrived in the colony a few years ago, for, in 1839 and 1840, mixed flocks of sheep sold at 1*l.* 5*s.* per head, cattle at 5*l.* 10*s.*, while farms were scarcely to be had for love or money; whereas, at the close of 1844, mixed flocks of sheep averaged 5*s.* per head, and horned cattle 1*l.* 5*s.*, and very many farms, or small estates, of rich soil, were in the market at extremely low figures. Farms of a thousand acres, completely fenced in, and partly cultivated, with comfortable brick cottages, stables, and all necessary

outbuildings (such as could not have been erected for less than 800*l.*), are now to be readily purchased for ten or twelve hundred pounds from colonists who either are in embarrassed circumstances, or believe they can employ their capital to better advantage than in farming.

The persons best adapted for Australian settlers are young men with 2,000*l.* and 3,000*l.* in their pockets, who have sufficient moral courage to resist all the temptations of a town, adhere firmly to the less polished and rather monotonous routine of a bush life, and are not too fastidious, but on emergency could eat damper (a coarse dark bread) and salt junk, using their fingers instead of knives or forks, drink tea out of tin pots, and sleep in the open air with saddles for their pillows, occasionally without even a cloak for a covering. After landing, the emigrant of capital ought to be excessively guarded in his movements, and take no step without due consideration. He should remember that he is in a land of strangers, and allow no insinuating tongue or interested giver of dinners, to induce him to embark one shilling of his capital in any colonial business, until he has gained much local experience. The emigrant will find that he has plenty to learn, with not a little to unlearn; and he who spends some months in acquiring colonial knowledge, will find himself at the end of a few years in a very different position from those who foolishly believed themselves possessed of intuitive knowledge of colonial affairs, and dashed headlong into them. It is not intended to

imply that the difficulties of sheep-farming are great, indeed they are comparatively trivial; it being rather the selection and management of a class of men of whom new comers can know nothing, to which the emigrant will be required to direct his attention.

Australia presents many inducements to families having capital of about £8,000,—the heads of which are men of education, possessed of strong minds, and good common sense, but not having been brought up to any profession or business, have no likelihood of increasing their capital at home. If, however, the head of the family—no matter how well educated and upright—be a man of weak or vacillating disposition, emigrating to Australia will only have the effect of reducing his family to a worse plight than they were in at home; for, it is a fact which will not admit of dispute, that to succeed in the colony men must think and act for themselves, and oftener listen with suspicion than credulity to advice that has any reference to pounds, shillings, and pence.

We will suppose a family, and there are many such, existing upon 200*l.* or 300*l.* a year in England—sums which they would consider good interest for a capital of 8,000*l.* Such a family would at home have many difficulties to contend with. They would be excluded by their poverty from occupying the position in society to which, perhaps, the head of the family, by birth, manners, and education, was entitled. Now, if this family emigrated to New South Wales, their position in society would soon be reversed. They would be no longer

dependants on others for their social existence, and they would find that their 8,000*l.* judiciously managed was quite sufficient for the foundation of a fortune.

The whole family could be landed for 280*l.* in the colony. 1000*l.* will purchase an improved farm, in any of the respectable districts, with all the requisite buildings, 100 or more acres in cultivation, a good garden and orchard, besides being stocked with fifty head of horned cattle, and eight or ten horses. From the farm alone, without any other outlay, the family, however large, would obtain all the necessaries, and some of the luxuries of life, and if worked as a dairy farm, it would return interest on the purchase-money. A sum of 2,000*l.*, invested in good mortgages at ten or twelve per cent., will return the family as much as their whole income in England amounted to, while the remainder of the 8,000*l.*, judiciously expended in sheep or cattle, will, besides increasing their annual income, eventually double and triple the original capital. The position of such a family would soon be changed for the better—their style of living would gradually become more conformable to their increased income—a tutor residing in the family would instruct in the classics the children to whom in England the rudest education could scarcely have been afforded. The revolution, however, would not end here; for as in England the head of the family had been, in the literal meaning of the word, a useless member of society; so in Australia he would be beneficial to the British manufacturer and labourer in a twofold sense—he would

be both a producer and consumer. He would, moreover, be occasionally the patron, and always the supporter, of useful local associations—his opinion and advice as a man of sound sense and good education would be referred to in all district, and perhaps in most colonial affairs.

The society of the colony is respectable, much importance being attached to character, and a *faux pas* either in men or women being as little tolerated in Australia as in the mother country. At the same time, the refinements of literature, generally, among English gentlemen, and the more elegant accomplishments of English ladies, are not among the prominent features of Australian society. Indeed a new comer cannot fail to remark that the monopolizing subjects of conversation are, colonial policy, sheep, cattle, and agriculture; but however much this peculiarity may annoy him at first, he will before long find his thoughts and words imperceptibly following the stream, if he, like most men in Australia, becomes actually employed in some colonial occupation.

CHAPTER V.

Government—Laws and Courts—Police—Provisions for Clergymen
—Education—Revenue and Expenditure of the Colony—District
Councils.

FROM the foundation of the colony until the present time, there has not been less than nine different governors in New South Wales. The vice-regal chronology stands as follows:—1st. Governor Phillip, from January 1788 to December 1792; 2nd. Governor Hunter, from August 1795 to September 1800; 3rd. Governor King, from September 1800 to August 1806; 4th. Governor Bligh, from August 1806 to January 1808; 5th. Governor Macquaire, from January 1810 to December 1821; 6th. Governor Brisbane, from December 1821 to December 1825; 7th. Governor Darling, from December 1825 to October 1831; 8th. Governor Burke, from December 1831 to December 1837; and last, the present Governor, Sir George Gipps, who arrived in the colony at the commencement of 1838.

When the colony was first established, the whole executive powers were vested in the Governor, and this order of things lasted until 1824, when the old *regimé* was superseded by a form of government which consisted, first, of the Governor of the territory of New South Wales; second, an executive council, consisting of the Governor, the Colonial Secretary, the Colonial Treasurer, and the Bishop; third, a legislative council, consisting of the members of the executive council, with the addition of the Chief Justice, the Attorney-General, the chief officer of the Customs, the Auditor-General, and seven private gentlemen who were appointed by the crown, and who were generally selected on account of their experience in colonial affairs. Under this form of government, the Australian community had risen, it is true, to a state of brilliant prosperity; but it had also fallen to a comparatively low ebb,—the colonial revenue having in two years risen from 324,080*l.* to 653,027*l.* sterling, in the course of three years dropped to 360,600*l.* sterling.

Some of the colonists, forgetful that their prosperity might, in some part, be attributed to the good policy of their rulers, ascribed the adverse change in their affairs to the short-sightedness of the Colonial Government, and, in consequence, became importunate in their petitions to the home authorities for a representative legislature, as a panacea for all their grievances. The petitions of this part of the Australian community, it would seem, were favourably entertained, for in 1843 the

form of government was again changed, and made to consist, first, of the Governor; second, an executive council similar to that of 1824; and third, a legislative council, composed of six official members, six nominees appointed by the Governor, and twenty-four elective members; a speaker is chosen from the whole body.

Able and respectable as the representative council may be, it is very probable that it would have been more so had the elective boon been granted at a time when the colony was more prosperous, and, consequently, when a greater number of colonists could have prudently spared time for public duties; any censures, however, on the general conduct of the present council would be unjust; for, although scarcely two years old, its legislative duties have been great, and many of its members have unsparingly dedicated their time and talents to the wellbeing of the colony. The last two years have indeed been full of anxiety for all connected with Australian politics, and to none more so than the present governor, who has encountered difficulties of a greater magnitude than ever fell to the lot of any of his predecessors; and whatever difference of opinion may at present exist with regard to some of Sir G. Gipps' acts, their wisdom will be felt and acknowledged when the present colonial embarrassments have passed over, and men see more clearly. In the meantime the colonists would do well to bear in mind, that the panic which has so lately visited Australia, has been caused by means over which they themselves had certainly as

much, if not more control than their rulers:—the deterioration in the value of wool and oil can be attributed to neither party; the abolition of the assignment system was only adopted by Government at the earnest and repeated entreaties of the colonists; while the introduction of capital, its more than lavish diffusion, and then its sudden withdrawal, were the acts of private individuals.

The statute laws of England are those which, for the most part, are in force in the colony, and the local enactments which formerly emanated from Parliament, or by the Governor and Council, are now, of course, made by the Legislative Council, with the sanction of the colonial executive. Considering the embarrassed state of the colony, perhaps the most important enactment made by the Legislative Council is a new Insolvent Debtor's Act, which passed at the commencement of 1844, and is now in operation. This Act did away with imprisonment for debt, on the grounds, first, that the imprisonment of the debtor gave a vindictive creditor the power of depriving other creditors of their right to benefit by the labour of their debtor; and, secondly, that it drove the debtor, however much he might wish to devote his energies to the payment of his obligations, to seek refuge in the insolvent court. It further enacted, that wherever the assent of a majority of the creditors could be obtained, a debtor might make a voluntary assignment of his property to trustees appointed by these consenting creditors, provided that such assignment should be published three times in one of the

Sydney newspapers. The result of the latter clause will have, no doubt, the effect of removing, in a great measure, the odium and demoralizing effect attending public exposure in the insolvent court; but whether voluntary assignment will prevent the waste of property, and other abuses, remains yet to be seen.

The execution of the laws devolves upon a supreme court, presided over by a chief justice and two puisne judges. The powers of the supreme court are very extensive; it is, I believe, a court of admiralty for criminal offences. From the supreme court an appeal lies in all actions where the sum exceeds 500*l.*, first to the Governor, and finally to the Queen in Council. Circuit courts, or courts of assize, are held twice a year in Maitland, Bathurst, and Berrima, and have powers as extensive as assize courts in England. Courts of general and quarter sessions, presided over by a chairman who is elected by the territorial magistrates, have also the same powers as those of England. Courts of requests in the county of Cumberland for summarily determining claims not exceeding 30*l.*, and in the assize towns for claims not exceeding 10*l.*, are established. The decision of this court is final. A commissioner appointed by the Crown presides at the court of requests in Cumberland, and the respective stipendiary magistrates, with increased salaries, act as commissioners of requests in three assize towns.

Juries sit in civil and criminal cases. An Act has lately passed the Legislative Council, by which juries, after six hours' deliberation, are empowered to

divide, when a majority of two-thirds is sufficient to return a verdict. There are benches of magistrates in Sydney and in the principal towns of the colony, aided by constables and by a civil and military force. Until lately, a stipendiary magistrate, who was obliged always to be in attendance, presided at each bench of magistrates, but an over economizing spirit has done away with the office of stipendiary magistrate at most of the benches throughout the colony, and the consequence is, that now the magisterial duties are performed less efficiently by settlers whose time for the most part is too much occupied by private business, to admit of their devoting sufficient attention to the administration of justice.

The mounted police corps is composed of 100 soldiers, the élite of the regiments quartered in the colony. Their duty is to apprehend bushrangers (a sub-genus banditti). Of course, robberies, burglaries, and murders are committed in the colony, but the original bushranger, mounted on his fleet steed, and living in the fastnesses, is now an uncommon sight; and although I spent the best part of five years in travelling through the bush of New South Wales, I never heard the bushranger's "stop," or the click of his pistol. Five officers are attached to the mounted police, and as the pay is good, the discipline perhaps a little lax, and the uniform very splendid, the half civil, half military appointment of mounted police officer is considered a very enviable birth among the subalterns quartered in the colony. This corps has cost the colony on an average 18,000*l.* per annum.

for the last six years, and it is to be hoped, in these economizing days, that the Governor and Legislative Council have duly considered whether the colony gets its pounds' worth, out of the mounted police.

There are at present two regiments in New South Wales. The head-quarters for these regiments are Sydney and Paramatta; detachments of from twenty to sixty rank and file, with subalterns in command are distributed over the colony. Two regiments in conjunction with the civil power are found quite sufficient to enforce the laws.—Regiments quartered in New South Wales do not receive any colonial pay.

The commissariat consists of a deputy commissariat-general, two assistant deputies, and numerous clerks; the accountant department consists of an assistant commissary-general, and four or five subordinates.

There are no militia or yeomanry corps in the colony; on any case of emergency the settlers, however, would form a rather formidable body, being well adapted for a yeomanry corps, and in those instances where continued and hazardous pursuits after escaped convicts have occurred, the settlers, who at all times freely volunteer, have been I will not say more efficient, but certainly quite as much so as the mounted police. Many settlers are of opinion that a protective corps raised from among themselves would prove less expensive and more beneficial than those now existing, both on account of their intimate knowledge of the bush, and the very moderate rate at which they could supply themselves with horses.

There is a great variety in the forms of religion, and the ministers of most of the sects are provided for by the colonial legislature in the following manner. The Episcopalian church receives annually upwards of 14,000*l.*; the Roman Catholic church receives 5,000*l.*; the Presbyterian church, 3,500*l.*; and the Wesleyans about 1,400*l.*; besides which sum there is 12,000*l.* granted annually for extraordinary demands, to meet which the government is pledged under the church act, such as the building of churches for all denominations, and salaries of churchmen who may arrive in the colony, with the permission of the secretary of state. The clergymen, in addition to their government pay, receive handsome subscriptions from their congregations, and their outward appearance certainly does not proclaim them as belonging to Pharaoh's lean kine. They are, perhaps more frequently than any other class of persons in the colony, to be seen either in their carriages, or mounted on handsome and well groomed horses.

The Legislative Council voted last year 14,050*l.* for educational purposes. Of this sum there was more than 6,000*l.* allotted to two male and female orphan schools for destitute Protestant and Roman Catholic children. Other Church of England schools, conducted in accordance with specific regulations, received about 3,500*l.*, and the remaining 4,000*l.* was distributed among Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, and Wesleyan schools, which were conducted according to the Colonial Government regulations.

A committee of the Legislative Council, which was appointed in June, 1844, to inquire into the system of colonial education, reported that out of 25,076 children, between the ages of four and fourteen, only 7,642 received instruction in public schools, and 4,865 in private seminaries. The committee attributed the fact of so great a number as 13,000 children living in the colony uneducated, to the strictly denominational system of the public schools, and pronounced that the sum which the colony paid was disproportionately greater to the number educated. The committee went on to recommend the Irish system of national education ; in other words, a system which would give under one roof a combined literary education to the lower classes of the community, and a separate religious education, to those of different persuasions. In pursuance of the committee's recommendation, it was moved in the Legislative Council, that the system so recommended should supersede the denominational system hitherto in use in the colony. About a week previous to my leaving New South Wales, the original motion gave place to an amendment, which, so far as I understood it, while it had for its object a combined literary education for children of all creeds, excluded religious instruction and use of the Bible in the school-houses, setting apart one or two days in the week for the religious instruction of the children, either at home or elsewhere, as their parents thought proper. The amendment, which was not to interfere with any of the then existing

schools, was carried by a majority of one; but it had not, previously to my departure, received the approval of the executive.

The present revenue and expenditure of the colony will be best understood by an extract from the Governor's message of 18th July, 1844, to the Legislative Council. Thus—

“ The ordinary revenue of the colony amounted, during the year 1843, to		£294,311	14	9
“ The Crown revenue (exclusive of the sums derived from the sale of lands) amounted to		45,822	18	0
		£340,134	12	9

Again—

“ The total expenditure of 1843, exclusive of immigration and aborigines having been		£325,193	6	0
“ Or adding the aborigines		4,841	14	2
		£330,035	0	2
“ And as the revenue was		340,134	12	0
“ It follows that the whole revenue (exclusive of the land fund) exceeded the whole expenditure, exclusive of immigration, by the sum of		£10,099	12	7

“ Coming now to the land fund and immigration, it appears that the land fund (by which is meant

the money derived from the sale of land) amounted to . . . £10,756 11 6

“And the charges of immigration amounted to . . . 13,854 15 0

“So that the expenses of immigration exceeded the whole land fund by . . . 3,098 6 6

“And this is exclusive altogether of the recent immigration, the whole of the expense of which is chargeable on the present year, 1844, as the *Herald* (the first of the recent emigrant ships) arrived only on the 9th January last.”

The message, after occupying some space, by entering into the more minute details of the revenue and expenditure of 1843, passes at once to the estimates of 1845.

“The amount of the estimates submitted to the Council is . . . £185,725 2 0

“To which, if the amount of schedules A, B, and C is appended to the 5th and 6th Vict. c. 76, be added . . . 81,600 0 0

“The gross amount of estimated expenditure will be . . . £266,875 2 0

“And I have reason to hope that the ordinary revenue of the colony will not fall short of the sum.”

“In the year 1843, the ordinary revenue produced 294,311*l.* 14*s.* 9*d.* sterling; but it was only in the second half of that year that the recent decline in that revenue began to manifest itself, and some

items, such as those of tolls on roads and ferries, which in 1843 were carried to the general account, will in 1845 be transferred to the District Council. The ways and means, as prepared by the Auditor-General, show an expected revenue of 290,280*l*.

“No contribution can, I fear, be expected from the crown revenue in aid of the ordinary revenue during the year 1845, as not only is the whole expense of the survey department now thrown upon the Crown revenue, but it is further burthened with a debt on account of immigration, which will probably amount to from 80,000*l*. to 100,000*l*. sterling by the end of the present year.” Again :

“The estimates of the police are framed upon the principle laid down in the 47th clause of the Act for the government of New South Wales, namely, that one-half of the expense of maintaining the police shall be defrayed out of the general funds of the colony, the other half by local assessments.”

The finance message concludes with — “I also submit to the consideration of the Council, a supplementary estimate for the service of the present year, amounting to 12,845*l*. 1*s*. sterling. I have reason, however, to hope that a considerable portion of this estimate will be covered by savings on the estimates already voted for 1844.”

Although this is the only allusion in the Governor's message to the expenditure of 1844, it is to be inferred that the abstract of the revenue and expenditure of 1844, will, when it does appear, show a balance in favour of the former of that part of the

abstract which does not embrace the Crown land sales, and the applications of the funds derived therefrom is excepted.

The revenue derived from the sale of Crown lands (amounting in nine years to upwards of 1,000,000*l.*), is the fund that of late years has been set apart for emigration purposes. This fund has now, exclusive of the charges of the survey department, amounting to about 16,000*l.* per annum, an incubus of at least 100,000*l.* of debt to pay off; and inconsiderable as these charges and debts might appear in 1840, when the revenue derived from Crown land sales exceeded 300,000*l.*, they are formidable charges on a revenue of 11,000*l.* How is the Crown land to relieve itself of this debt?—How is future emigration to be carried on?—are questions easier asked than answered.

That the estimates for 1845 are so much below the expenditure of 1843 is attributable in some degree to the recent curtailment of salaries, and abolition of offices; but it is mainly referable to the fact, that the items of tolls, roads, ferries, and one-half of the expense of maintaining the police, which, in 1843, were all carried to the general account, are in 1845 to be defrayed by local assessment.

District councils for the purpose of carrying this new order of things into effect have been established; and although some of the colonists have considered that the benefits to be derived from local assessments will not, in these cashless times, be commensurate with the expenses that must attend the machinery

of District Councils, yet the colonists must be aware that the general taxation will decrease, for the Government will be relieved of a very considerable item in its expenditure, while the colony will be able to regulate their improvements and consequent taxation in a manner proportionate to their capabilities.

Should the privileges, which have been lately granted to New South Wales prove (which there is no good reason to suppose will be the case) to have been premature, the colonists cannot shut their eyes to the fact, that these have only been conceded to them at their own repeated solicitations.

The statistical returns, which were published in June, 1844, and which comprise a period of nine years from 1834 to 1843, are the best criterion of the present position of Australia. The returns of live stock do not, within a considerable number, represent the actual stock in the colony, chiefly on account of the very scattered localities of the stockholders, and the consequent difficulty of obtaining at one time the precise returns from each. The returns of horse-stock is generally allowed to be very far below the number of horses in the colony.

APPENDIX.

STATISTICAL RETURNS OF NEW SOUTH WALES,

From the Printed Papers of the Legislative Council.

APPENDIX

STATISTICAL RESULTS OF NEW BOLIVIAN MINES

COIN.

RETURN of COIN in the Colonial Treasury, the Military Chest, and the several Banks, on the 31st December, in each Year, from 1836 to 1843.

YEAR.	Colonial Treasury.		Military Chests.		Banks.		Totals.		Increase on previous Year.		Decrease on previous Year.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
1836	218,630	0 0			202,090	2 11	420,720	2 11				
1837	245,250	0 0			182,182	11 6	427,432	11 6	6,712	8 7		
1838	163,000	0 0			357,127	11 5	520,127	11 5	92,694	19 11		
1839	124,100	0 0			391,969	16 7	516,069	16 7			4,057	14 10
1840	38,900	0 0	49,151	18 9	309,529	15 0	397,581	13 9			118,488	2 10
1841	25,000	0 0	10,000	0 0	427,624	17 9	462,624	17 9	65,043	4 0		
1842	Nil.		32,409	14 5	442,980	4 3	475,389	18 8	12,765	0 11		
1843	Nil.		3,000	0 0	420,972	0 0	423,972	0 5			51,417	18 3

POPULATION, 1843.

RETURN of the INCREASE and DECREASE of the POPULATION of New South Wales (including the District of Port Phillip), from 1st January to 31st December, 1843; and of the Total Number on the latter date.

	ADULTS.		CHILDREN.		TOTAL.	GENERAL TOTAL.
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.		
Increase by Immigration	3,611	996	453	433	5,493	
*Births.....			3689	3493	7,182	
Total Increase.....	3611	996	4,142	3,926		12,675
Decrease by *Deaths	834	344	612	503	2,293	
Departure	3,158	940	327	305	4,730	
Total Decrease ..	3,992	1,284	939	808		7,023
Net Decrease of Adults	381	288				
Net Increase of Children			3,203	3,118		5,652
Population on the 31st Dec. 1842	76,528	35,762	23,979	23,620		59,889
Population on the 31st Dec. 1843	76,147	35,474	27,182	26,738		165,541

* The Returns of Births and Deaths having been rendered only to the 30th September, 1843, the number for the last quarter of that year has been taken at the average of the three previous quarters.

AGRICULTURE—POPULATION.

RETURN showing the quantity of LAND in CULTIVATION (exclusive of GARDENS and ORCHARDS), and the POPULATION of the Colony of New South Wales (including the District of Port Phillip) from the Year 1834 to 1843, inclusive.

YEAR.	AGRICULTURE.										POPULATION.													
	CROPS.										PRODUCE.										ADULTS.		Children.	TOTAL.
	ACRES IN CROP.										PRODUCE.													
	Wheat.	Maize.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Millet.	Potatoes.	Tobacco.	Sown Grasses Oats, & Bar- ley for Hay.	Total number of Acres in Crop.	Wheat.	Maize.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Millet.	Potatoes.	Tobacco.	Hay.	Tons.	Male.	Fem.		
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Busheles.	Bush.	Bush.	Bush.	Bush.	Bush.	Bus.	Tons.	Cwt.	Tons.				
1834	48,667	16,482	3195	2719	700	51	960	182	1,855	74,811	780,700	357,601	59,731	37,182	10,840	760	about 1,050	about 1,599	about 4,481	42,008	19,065	12,139	66,212	
1835	47,051	20,831	2903	2278	599	59	1081	321	4,133	79,256	526,266	503,314	47,249	13,155	7,461	727	about 1,336	about 2,146	about 2,315	45,259	12,647	13,686	71,592	
1836	51,616	17,503	3062	4276	720	14	977	461	3,803	87,432	384,244	390,132	60,057	23,412	10,818	18	about 1,870	about 4,145	about 14,853	48,375	14,550	14,171	77,096	
1837	59,975	18,381	2551	3893	493	80	1165	533	5,054	92,125	692,620	632,155	51,447	17,119	6,753	695	2,102	2,034	5,627	52,099	15,918	17,250	85,267	
1838	48,060	25,043	2922	3767	429	39	1788	925	9,939	92,912	469,140	556,268	32,103	13,416	4,878	353	3,496	4,952	6,960	57,485	18,000	22,427	97,912	
1839	4,401	22,026	3490	6793	483	46	1115	424	12,534	95,312	805,140	525,507	66,033	27,788	7,008	283	2,601	2,509	25,923	63,784	21,998	28,604	114,386	
1840	74,133	24,966	5144	5453	609	115	2594	381	12,721	126,116	1,116,814	777,947	105,389	66,020	8,863	3338	11,050	4,300	21,329	70,021	25,476	33,966	129,463	
1841	58,605	25,004	5423	5892	495	47	4027	380	15,257	115,130	832,776	503,803	90,172	62,704	6,507	1072	11,141	2,642	17,175	75,474	33,546	40,649	149,669	
1842	65,188	27,324	5320	4467	486	99	5174	224	18,592	126,874	854,432	590,134	88,767	84,321	4,451	1201	12,561	2,014	18,622	76,528	35,762	47,599	159,889	
1843	78,083	29,061	5727	4537	514	42	5872	655	21,162	145,653	1,000,225	719,358	95,658	92,268	5,145	410	16,392	6,098	27,774	76,147	35,474	53,920	165,541	

NOTE.—From 1834 to 1841, the crops and produce from land beyond the boundaries of location, are not included.

SHIPPING OUTWARDS.

SHIPPING OUTWARDS.

RETURN of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS entered OUTWARDS, in the Colony of New South Wales (including the District of Port Phillip), from the year 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	To Great Britain.		To British Colonies.		To South Sea Islands.		To Fisheries.		To United States.		To Foreign States.		TOTAL.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1834*	27	8,639	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	105	28,729	220	53,373
1835*	31	11,261	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	148	39,882	269	66,964
1836	32	9,759	36	4,709	106	22,895	36	8,484	..	..	54	16,987	264	62,834
1837	43	13,398	45	6,721	230	34,295	42	10,344	..	..	42	13,262	402	78,020
1838	35	12,367	39	5,358	216	28,494	40	10,385	1	289	73	35,749	409	93,004
1839	39	13,886	81	13,581	303	52,749	28	7,718	2	621	88	35,005	548	124,776
1840	54	18,774	83	17,111	350	66,131	22	6,199	4	950	146	53,802	665	163,704
1841	54	16,418	80	14,607	340	68,449	19	5,053	1	341	186	65,248	690	172,118
1842	54	16,323	78	13,080	328	56,891	25	7,318	2	705	131	37,904	633	134,970
1843	70	22,154	54	10,018	322	43,874	21	5,793	..	..	55	18,404	564	110,026

* 1834, 1835—Vessels entered for the South Sea Islands, New Zealand, &c., are included with those for “Foreign States.”

SHIPPING INWARDS.

RETURN of the NUMBER and TONNAGE of VESSELS entered INWARDS, in the Colony of New South Wales
(including the District of Port Phillip), from the year 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	From Great Britain.		From British Colonies.		From South Sea Islands.		From Fisheries.		From United States.		From Foreign States.		TOTAL.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1834*	58	20,906	..	..	112	23,730	..	..	..	..	75	13,896	245	58,532
1835	47	17,530	..	..	132	28,507	12	2,282	6	1,400	40	7,401	260	63,019
1836	60	23,610	41	5,430	124	25,861	4	546	3	975	12	2,962	269	65,415
1837	56	21,816	36	5,480	233	33,751	5	581	5	1,220	17	4,262	400	80,114
1838	102	41,848	38	4,291	241	34,469	6	616	1	274	9	2,351	428	91,777
1839	137	58,123	51	8,368	290	45,928	36	836	4	1,177	38	11,721	563	135,474
1840	190	80,806	68	13,123	347	53,625	27	750	8	2,520	63	20,047	709	178,958
1841	251	106,332	48	7,601	322	43,922	23	358	13	4,754	54	14,648	714	183,778
1842	137	55,144	81	14,085	282	42,365	20	2,902	7	2,762	82	20,857	628	143,921
1843	87	35,914	43	6,229	325	43,934	30	4,194	5	1,116	43	11,510	558	110,864

* 1834—Vessels entered from South Sea Islands, New Zealand, &c. are included with those from "Foreign States."

IMPORTS.

RETURN of the VALUE of IMPORTS into the Colony of New South Wales (including the District of Port Phillip), from the year 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	From Great Britain.	From British Colonies.		From South Sea Islands.	From Fisheries.	From United States.	From Foreign States.	TOTAL.
		New Zealand.	Elsewhere.					
1834*	£ 669,663	£	£ 124,570	£	£	£	£ 197,757	£ 991,990
1835	707,133	35,542	144,824	1,420	141,823	13,902	70,161	1,114,805
1836	794,422	32,155	220,254	1,972	103,575	22,739	62,289	1,237,406
1837	807,264	42,886	257,427	1,764	80,441	9,777	97,932	1,297,491
1838	1,102,127	53,943	255,975	5,548	71,506	8,066	82,112	1,579,277
1839	1,251,969	71,709	504,828	3,863	186,212	23,093	194,697	2,236,371
1840	2,200,305	54,192	376,954	1,348	104,895	24,164	252,331	3,014,189
1841	1,837,369	45,659	286,637	24,361	87,809	35,282	200,871	2,527,988
1842	854,774	37,246	260,955	10,020	64,999	20,117	206,948	1,455,059
1843	1,034,942	15,738	211,291	22,387	42,579	12,041	211,566	1,550,544

NOTE.—1834:—The value of Imports from the South Sea Islands, New Zealand, &c., is included with that of "Foreign States."

EXPORTS.

RETURN of the VALUE of EXPORTS from the Colony of New South Wales (including the District of Port Phillip), from the year 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	To Great Britain.	To British Colonies.		To South Sea Islands.	To Fisheries.	To United States.	To Foreign States.	TOTAL.
		New Zealand.	Elsewhere.					
1834*	£. 400,738	£.	£. 128,211	£.	£.	£.	£. 58,691	£. 587,640
1835	496,345	39,984	83,108	2,696	38,445	18,594	3,011	682,193
1836	513,976	36,184	136,596	9,628	35,918	13,697	2,625	748,624
1837	518,951	39,528	118,447	485	54,434	10,617	17,592	760,054
1838	583,154	46,924	113,716	7,137	33,988	11,324	6,525	802,768
1839	597,100	95,173	194,684	1,347	34,729	18,568	7,175	948,776
1840	792,494	215,486	304,724	6,621	27,864	27,885	24,618	1,399,692
1841	706,336	114,980	123,968	13,144	18,417	4,837	41,715	1,023,397
1842	685,705	131,784	166,239	3,005	22,862	17,101	40,715	1,067,411
1843	825,885	79,764	205,992	17,934	18,827		23,918	1,172,320

NOTE.—1834 :—The value of Exports to the South Sea Islands, New Zealand, &c., is included with that of "Foreign States."

EXPORT OF OIL.

RETURN of the QUANTITY and VALUE of OIL, &c. Exported from the Colony of New South Wales, from the year 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	Sperm Whale.	Black Whale.	Whalebone.		Seal Skins.	Value, as entered in the return of Exports.
	Tuns.	Tuns.	Tons.	Cwt.	No.	
1834	2,760	975	43	15	890	157,334½.
1835	2,898	1,159	112	..	641	180,349
1836	1,682	1,149	79	..	386	140,220
1837	2,559	1,565	77	8	107	183,122
1838	1,891	3,055	174	..	3 cases	197,644
1839	1,578	1,229	134	14	7 cases	172,315
1840	1,854	4,297	250	..	474	224,144
1841	1,545	1,018	84	13	41	127,470
1842	957	1,171	60	5	162	77,012
1843	1,115	900	22	8	..	72,877

EXPORT OF TIMBER.

RETURN of the QUANTITY and VALUE of TIMBER Exported from the Colony of New South Wales, from the year 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	Cedar.	Blue Gum, Pine, and other Timber.	Treenails.	Value as entered in the return of Exports.
	Quantity.	Quantity.	Numb.	
1834	899,492	30,065	212,467	£7,91
1835	907,921	145,628	178,969	10,489
1836	1,409,467	{ 3,778 feet and 106 logs }	35,094	14,611
1837	116,828	18,828	62,989	14,463
1838	699,066	9,000	73,450	6,382
1839	729,001	{ 823 deals 15 logs }	40,588	8,815
1840	1,250,786	151,500	4,350	20,971
1841	513,139	1,000	26,390	7,004
1842	522,882	27,404	55,644	5,800
1843	944,121	{ 10,020 30 logs }	155,294	9,813

VESSELS REGISTERED.

RETURN of the NUMBER of VESSELS BUILT and REGISTERED
in the Colony of New South Wales, (including the District
of Port Phillip,) from the year 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	Vessels Built.		Vessels Registered.	
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
1834	9	376	19	1,852
1835	7	303	21	2,267
1836	9	301	39	4,560
1837	17	760	36	3,602
1838	20	808	41	6,229
1839	12	773	79	10,862
1840	18	1,207	98	12,426
1841	35	2,074	110	11,250
1842	26	1,357	89	9,948
1843	47	1,433	92	7,022

AUCTION DUTY.

RETURN of the AMOUNT of AUCTION DUTY, at $1\frac{1}{2}$ per
cent., paid into the Colonial Treasury, and of the
Amount of Sales, subject to the said Duty, from the
year 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	Amount of Duty.			Amount of Sales.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
1834	2,327	6	10	155,156	2	$2\frac{1}{2}$
1835	3,135	16	2	209,053	17	$9\frac{1}{2}$
1836	4,697	11	5	313,171	7	$9\frac{1}{2}$
1837	4,820	3	11	321,346	7	$9\frac{1}{2}$
1838	6,137	10	1	409,166	18	$10\frac{1}{2}$
1839	7,700	16	5	513,388	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$
1840	18,701	2	10	1,246,742	15	$6\frac{1}{2}$
1841	14,455	9	1	963,696	18	$10\frac{1}{2}$
1842	10,291	6	8	686,088	17	$9\frac{1}{2}$
1843	6,818	9	6	454,565	0	0
Totals	79,085	12	11	5,272,376	7	$9\frac{1}{2}$

LAND SALES.

RETURN of the AMOUNTS received from the SALE of CROWN LANDS in the Colony of New South Wales (including the District of Port Phillip), from the year 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	Amount.		
	£	s.	d.
1834	41,844	9	1
1835	80,784	14	6
1836	126,458	16	0
1837	120,427	0	5
1838	116,324	18	11
1839*	152,962	16	4
1840	316,626	7	5
1841†	90,387	16	10
1842‡	14,574	10	4
1843§	11,297	3	9
	1,071,688	13	7

NOTE.—In the year 1831, Lord Ripon's regulations for the abolition of free grants, and the sale by auction of all Crown lands, were first promulgated in the colony.

* 1839.—In this year, the minimum price was raised from 5s. to 12s. an acre, but did not extend to lands previously advertised at the former rate, of which there was a very large quantity at the time.

† 1841.—In this year, the system of sale at a fixed price of 1*l.* per acre was introduced into the district of Port Phillip.

‡ 1842.—In this year, the system of sale by auction was resumed throughout the colony, at a minimum upset price of 12s. per acre for country lands, with liberty to select portions not bid for at the upset price.

§ 1843.—In this year, the minimum price was raised to 1*l.* per acre, by the Act of the Imperial Parliament, 5th and 6th Victoria, cap. 36, with liberty to select at the upset price, country portions put up to auction and not bid for, on which the deposit had been forfeited.

IMPORT OF GRAIN.

RETURN of the QUANTITY and VALUE of GRAIN, &c., Imported into the Colony of New South Wales (including the District of Port Phillip), from 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	Wheat.	Maize.	Barley, Oats, and Pease.	Flour and Bread.	Rice.	Pota- toes.	Total Value as entered in Re- turns of Imports.
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Tons.	
1834	15,568		6,818	345,896	407,680	408	£15,850
1835	122,908	895	12,031	1,377,018	1,139,551	520	72,920
1836	263,956	8,180	27,567	4,385,550	474,358	1,304	146,149
1837	114,464	3,395	7,034	1,522,658	176,030	545	61,006
1838	79,328	6,040	58,927	2,478,712	728,346	1,167	64,313
1839	171,207	30,862	64,093	3,579,076	1,414,747	1,189	285,110
1840	290,843	19,185	63,363	7,108,663	6,849,896	1,723	217,063
1841	239,224	12,773	41,610	14,929,503	3,603,076	480	201,632
1842	163,224	1,120	37,798	7,247,016	2,260,046	1,401	113,070
1843	395,374	583	61,361	6,941,760	1,678,208	547	112,387

IMPORT OF LIVE STOCK.

RETURN of LIVE STOCK Imported into the Colony of New South Wales (including the District of Port Phillip), from 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	DESCRIPTION OF STOCK.				
	Horses.	Horses, Mules, and Asses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Sheep and Hogs.
	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.
1834	6				62
1835	11				137
1836	8		4		449
1837	92		97	55,208	307
1838	185		74	9,822	192
1839	652		135	17,567	359
1840	1,008		244	19,958	252
1841	863	12	156	530	50 Hogs
1842	113		89	638	65 ditto
1843	31		28	609	4 ditto

N.B.—The Sheep have principally been imported from Van Diemen's Land to the District of Port Phillip.—The Horses have chiefly come from South America.

EXPORT OF WOOL.

RETURN of the QUANTITY and VALUE of WOOL Exported from the Colony of New South Wales (including the District of Port Phillip), from the year 1834 to 1843 inclusive.

YEAR.	Quantity.	Value as entered in the Return of Exports.
	lb.	£.
1834	2,246,933	213,628
1835	3,893,927	299,587
1836	3,693,241	369,324
1837	4,448,796	332,166
1838	5,749,376	405,977
1839	7,213,584	442,504
1840	8,610,775	566,112
1841	8,390,540	517,537
1842	9,428,036	595,175
1843	12,704,899	685,647

EXPORT OF TALLOW.

RETURN of the QUANTITY and VALUE of TALLOW Exported from the Colony of New South Wales, during the year 1843.

QUANTITY.			Value as entered in the Return of Exports.
Cwt.	qrs.	lb.	£.
5,680	2	36	9,639

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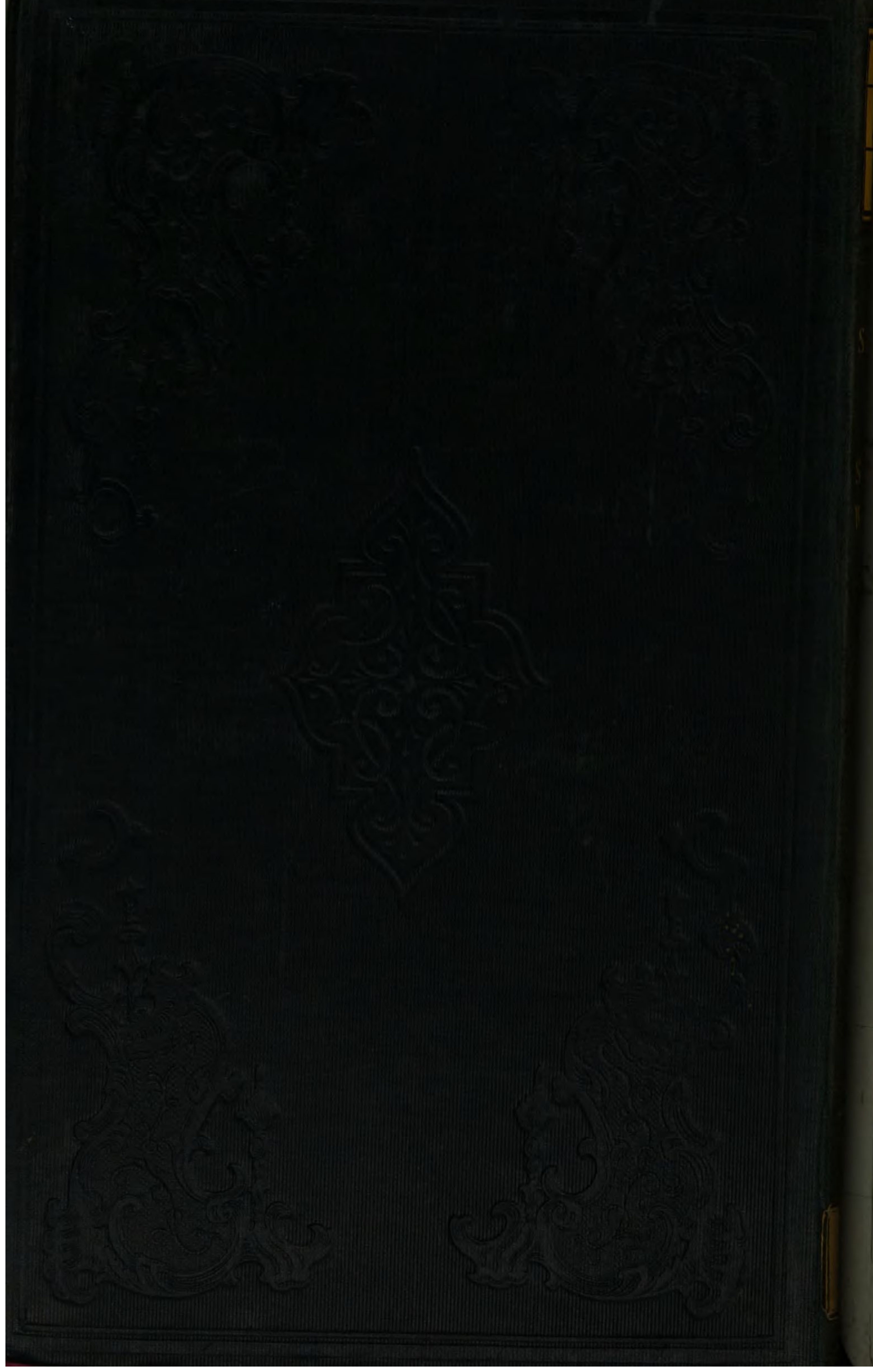
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